THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

AUGUST 1911

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A BEAUTY IN FASHIONABLE DRESS (FROM A COLOR PRINT BY TOYOKUNI I.)
Une belle à la mode (Apres un impression en couleur par Toyokuni I.)
Eine Schöne an der herrschende Tracht (Aus einem kolorierte Drücke von Toyokuni I.)

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

VOLUME TWO AUGUST, 1911 NUMBER FOUR

TOYOKUNI THE FIRST

By H. SHUGIO

THE first Toyokuni (Ichiyosai), the greatest of the Utagawa school, was born in a house which is no more in existence, on Mishimacho, of Shiba district, near the famous Shinto temple of Shimmei and the great temple of Zojoji, which is now enclosed within the Shiba park. His family name was Kurahashi and his given name Kumakichi. His father, Kurahashi Gorobei, was a professional carver of wooden images and he was noted for his wonderful skill in carving the figures of Ichikawa Hakuyen, second of the Ichikawa family of actors.

Toyokuni was a born artist, having no doubt inherited an artistic temperament from his father, and he was fond of drawing all sorts of pictures as soon as he was able to handle a brush. He was apprenticed to Toyohara, founder of the Utagawa school, by whom he was beloved, and it is said he was the greatest favorite among his pupils. Toyokuni was a great admirer of Itcho Giokuzan's and of Shunyei's style of painting and it seems somewhat to have influenced his works. He was the most popular Ukiyoye painter of his day and he had more pupils in his studio than any other artist of the Ukiyoye school, having among them many persons of good family and high rank.

Toyokuni is considered by many to have been the greatest delineator of our stage life and our actors. During his early days, the print world was, one might say, dominated by Utamaro and Hokusai, and Toyokuni's early prints, as well as his water color drawings, show their influences in no small degree, but he developed his own individual style later, which is quite independent, full of fine quality and more delicate in drawing.

There seems to have been at one time a great personal rivalry between him and Utamaro, and there is a story *a propos* to this, that Toyokuni's prints of the popular play of the love affairs of Ohan and Choyemon, acted by the great Ichikawa Yawozo, were the talk of the whole city of Yedo, and became so

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popular that everybody was eager to buy them. Utamaro, much irritated by their popularity, made a burlesque picture of it by representing the elopement scene by the portraits of two female beauties, with some sarcastic comment over the picture. Utamaro is said to have given up, partly from their rivalry, designing any theatrical prints and confined himself to the professional beauties and other subjects. Some say Toyokuni forged the Utamaro prints or made some designs for prints after Utamaro, but it can not be believed, judging from his personality.

During his artistic career Toyokuni was the most popular and successful artist, and he was always in great demand among the print and book publishers. He made many thousands of designs for prints, illustrated many books and made many water color drawings and black and white sketches. Among his illustrated books printed in colors may be mentioned Toshidama Fude (New Year's Present of a Writing Brush), Yakusha Awasekagami (Two Actors in One Picture), Kono Tegashiwa (Vendetta Story, by Bakin), Jisei Sugata Nigawo (Actors a La Mode), Hayageiko (Hand Book), Sankaikio, Sakura Hime Zenden (A Love Story), Sochoki (Novel, by Kyoden), Inadsuma Hioshi (A Vendetta), Honcho Suibodai, Uto Yasukota Chugiden, Akogi Monogatari, Sangoku Itchiya Monogatari etc. in black and white. He died in 1825 at the age of 56, or in his 57th year. His pupils consulting with his adopted son, the second Toyokuni, erected a stone memorial tablet within the sacred grounds of Miokendo, Yanageshima, which has the following inscription composed by the famous Magao :—

"Ichiyosai Utagawa Toyokuni whose family name was Kurahashi (and whose father, Kurahashi Gorobei, who lived near the Shinto temple of Shimmei of Shiba district during the Horeki period, was a distinguished professional carver of wooden images, specially famous for his wonderful skill in carving the likeness of Ichikawa Hakuyen the celebrated actor), was born in the early days of the Miwa period and was called Kumakichi.

"He was naturally fond of drawing pictures and for that reason he was apprenticed to Utagawa Toyoharu to learn Ukiyoye painting. Hence he took the family name of Utagawa and became his distinguished pupil. As he grew up he became a wonderful delineator of actor's portraits. His portrait paintings are life-like, really full of life and spirit. His pictures of professional beauties in fashion, and his illustrated books were so popular throughout all the provinces that even Chinese and far away strangers were eager to buy his works. Thus his studio name of Ichiyosai, and his personal art name of Toyokuni rose so far above all the other artists', that he established an independent school where even the noble sons of the red gates and many pupils gathered around him. Among them there were turned out many strong and able artists. Toyokuni was the great head of the Ukiyoye painters of modern times. To our great sorrow Ichiyosai died on the 7th day of January in the 8th year of Bunsei. He was buried in Kounji on Hijiri hill, in Mita and was given the posthumous name of Jissai Reigo Shinshi. His loving pupils consulting with his adopted son, the present Toyokuni, buried here many

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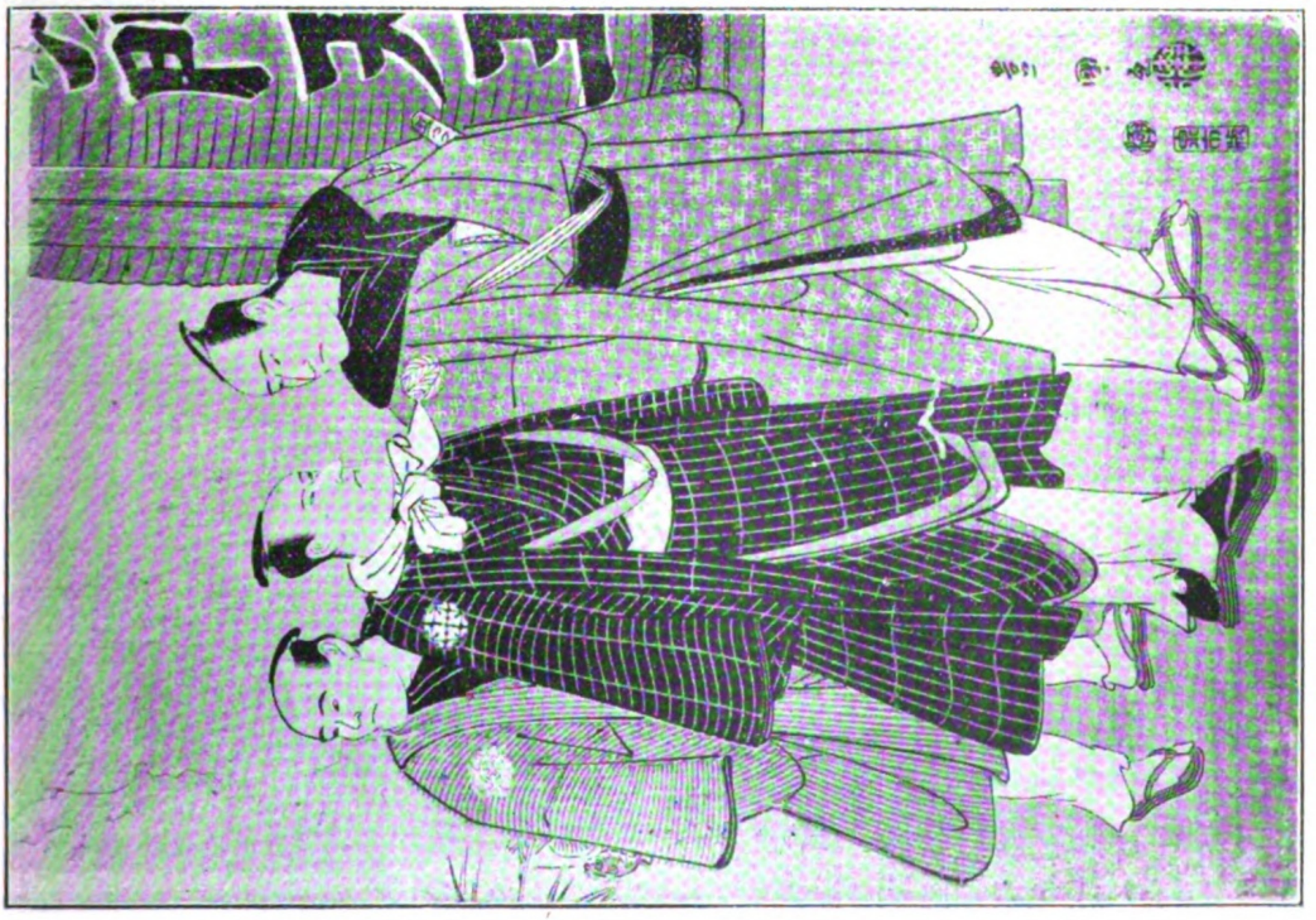
TWO BEAUTIES
Deux belles
Zwei Schönen

(FROM COLOR PRINTS BY TOYOKUNI I.)
(*Apres les impressions en couleur par Toyokuni I.*)
(*Aus Kolorierte Drucke von Toyokuni I.*)



THREE ACTORS ENTERING A TEMPLE GATE
Trois acteurs qui entre le portail du Temple
Drei Schausfieler einer eintretende einen Kirchthor

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TABLET IN MEMORY OF TOYOKUNI I.
La tablette en mémoire de Toyokuni I.
Das Memorandumbuch von Toyokuni I.

PORTRAIT OF TOYOKUNI I. BY KUNISADA (TOYOKUNI II.)
Portrait de Toyokuni I. par Kunisada (Toyokuni II.)
Toyokuni's Ebenbild von Kunisada (Toyokuni II.)

TOYOKUNI'S GRAVESTONE
Le tombeau de Toyokuni I.
Toyokuni's Grabmal

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hundred sheets of sketches left by the late master and raised this memorial monument, assisted also by the friends of the departed.

"Sakuragawa Jihisai came on their behalf to ask me to write their memorial and I could not refuse, being also an old friend of the late master.

"Middle of Autumn, the 11th year of Bunsei, composed by Kiokado Yoho Magao, written by Santoan Shosha Kioden."

Engraved on the back of the stone tablet are the names of book sellers, fan dealers, and subscribers to the monument of the general society of the Utagawa school.

Toyokuni's first publisher was Idsumiya Ichibei, of Shimmei, Shiba district, and the prints published by him were the portraits of actors. His studio was in Kami-makicho, Kiobashi district, and in his older days he was often called Makicho Toyokuni. There an many critics who consider him to be the greatest portrait painter of the Ukiyoye school and I also think he is one of the greatest. I was told by a friend, of a portrait done by the first Toyokuni when he was forty-six years old, of a merchant who lived in Kuramaye of Asakusa district. It was done in a rapid sketchy manner, but it was so well drawn that he thought while he was looking at it as if it seemed almost to breathe and speak out and he told me he never saw such a life-like portrait before in his life.

There is a delightful story about Toyokuni which shows what kind of man he was. A very rich merchant was very anxious to have his portrait painted by Toyokuni, the great and popular artist of the day. He went one day to his studio with all sorts of valuable presents and requested the master to do his portrait. Toyokuni agreed at once but it was not done for many months, and the merchant, being very anxious to have it, sent messengers quite often during these months to ask the master to finish his portrait. Now one of those messengers was a young boy who saw an outline drawing of his master's portrait, and Toyokuni asked him if it was a good likeness of his master. The boy answered that it was very good, an excellent likeness of his master; and with very sorrowful expression added "I wish I could ask you to paint my portrait." Toyokuni keenly observing the boy's sad look and feeling rather curious what he would do with his portrait if it was done, asked him what he would do with the picture if he did paint it. The boy then told him that he was a native of Yechigo, far away from Yedo, and that he had not been home to see his parents since he left them three years ago; that they had often written him to come home for a visit, but he could not go being so far away, while other boys who were in his shop could go home, their homes being nearer; and then he said, "If you would paint my portrait I could send it on to my home where my dear father and mother could look at it, and how glad they would feel, almost as good as seeing me in person; but I know it is no use for me to have such a wish, for I can never pay you for it." Then he commenced to cry bitterly and was very sad. Toyokuni taking in the situation said to the boy. "Well, well, I can understand how you feel. Now don't cry, for I am going to paint your portrait at once and you are not going to pay for it."

Then he had the boy sit down, and

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painted his portrait, which he gave to the grateful boy with his good wishes to the great joy of the good lad. The very next day the merchant master himself called on Toyokuni and said to him in a somewhat angry tone, "Well master, it is rather hard on me that you have not done my portrait, but did that of my servant boy yesterday." Toyokuni replied in his quiet manner, smilingly, "To tell the plain truth I have not neglected yours at all, but I can not do it; really, to paint a portrait one must know the man's character, disposition etc.; in the first place whether he is a patriot, an affectionate son or a faithful servant, etc. In your boy's case I saw at once his affectionate disposition and I did paint him on the spot, but in your case, pardon my saying so, I can not see any thing in you, and that is the true reason why I have not yet finished your portrait." The merchant left the great master's studio scratchiug his poor head, on his way home.

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THE ABANDONMENT OF CONSULAR JURISDICTION IN JAPAN

By YEIJIRO NAKATSUKA, M. DIP., D. C. L.

Part III

THE IWAKURA EMBASSY AND TERASHIMA

AFTER the restoration, diplomatic efforts for treaty revision were made by the Government. It became the burning question ; it was regarded as the first and foremost task to redeem the national prestige.

Imagine a people in utter ignorance of the outside world making fierce opposition against foreign intercourse. Imagine this people and this prejudice accusing the policy of the Government ; imagine a country full of turbulent nobles and *samurai* availing themselves of the diplomatic confusion of the Government ; imagine that the feudal Government of this country was inefficient to protect the lives and property of foreign residents ; imagine that the policy of this Government and of this country was intolerable to Christianity. Yes, imagine all these things, and then realize that the treaty stipulations made under these circumstances would not be favorable to Japan.

In 1871, the first proposal was made for treaty revision, a year previous to the date specified in the treaties. The next year the Iwakura Embassy visited the United States and European countries with this view. After this fruitless attempt, the internal improvement, the Korean affair, and others, engrossed the attention of the Government.

Terashima, Minister of Foreign Affairs, took up the task in 1878. His proposal was to restore tariff-autonomy, leaving consular jurisdiction untouched. The United States lent a ready ear to these views. In the new treaty signed between the United States and Japan, the United States recognized the exclusive right of Japan to adjust her tariffs and duties on imports. But the provision of the last article said that this convention should take effect when Japan should conclude similar conventions with other treaty powers. Japan did not succeed in obtaining consent of other powers and this revised treaty, of course, became inoperative.

COUNT INOUYE'S EFFORTS

Terashima was succeeded by Inouye. Tremendous efforts were made by him from the year 1882 to 1889. Whenever a proposal for the revision of the treaty was made, the treaty powers, who were willing to negotiate treaties, or who wished to continue the special privileges secured, found objections. So, always it resulted in fruitless efforts.

I ask you to bear with me a little, while I relate to you Inouye's efforts and the conference held for treaty revision. So great was his eagerness

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that he gave up his principle of moderate progress and began to preach the doctrine of radical change; for he thought the material progress of the country was the nearest way to accomplish the task of treaty revision.

In 1886, at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tokyo, a conference was held, by virtue of the following protocol:

"The Government of Japan and the Governments of Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, The Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Norway, the Swiss Confederation, and the United States of America, respectively, recognizing the desirability of arriving at a common understanding with the object of completing the work of the revision of the treaties begun in the preliminary Conference of 1882, have appointed plenipotentiaries to represent them at a new Conference convoked by the Japanese Government for this purpose.*

Inouye was made the president of the Conference, in which the proceedings were in the French and English languages. The important discussions of this Conference were: (1) on the tariff question: (2) on consular jurisdiction. In regard to the latter, the proposal of the Japanese Government in substance was as follows:

1. Confine consular jurisdiction to the treaty limits of seven open ports; all foreigners outside shall be subjected to Japanese jurisdiction.

2. After three years, consular jurisdiction shall be absolutely abolished.

3. For foreigners, the court shall be composed of Japanese and foreign nationality; and this shall remain in force until 1903, and, thereafter the Japanese Government shall assume full jurisdiction.

This proposal met opposition within, because it yielded too much to treaty powers. The fierce opposition of the people and the lack of harmony of the Cabinet compelled Inouye to give up his portfolio.

COUNT OKUMA TOOK UP THE TASK

The new Minister of Foreign Affairs took up the task which was given up in discouragement by his predecessor. With fresh vigor, Okuma took a step further forward than Inouye's policy. On the one hand, he enforced the corollary to consular jurisdiction. His motive was to make foreigners realize the inconvenience arising from the existing treaties. On the other hand, he entered into negotiations for a separate convention. As usual, the United States lent a ready ear and was first to give her consent, which was followed by Germany and Russia. While he pushed on his negotiations with other European Powers, he concluded a treaty with Mexico on equal footing.

The terms upon which he was negotiating with European Powers were not known to the public. When the supposed proposal of terms appeared in the *London Times* in 1889, Japan was divided into two parties, one advocating, the other opposing his policy. The main points of his opponents were: first, against the opening of the interior of the country to foreigners; second, against the organization of mixed courts, as when a suit involved any foreigner, the case was heard in a court in which the

* Hubbard's *The United States in the Far East*, p. 155.

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THE LATE COUNT MUTSU
Le Comte Mutsu (décéder)
Der selige Graf Mutsu

PRINCE IWAKURA
Le Prince Iwakura
Herzog Iwakura

COUNT TERASHIMA
Le Comte Terashima
Graf Terashima

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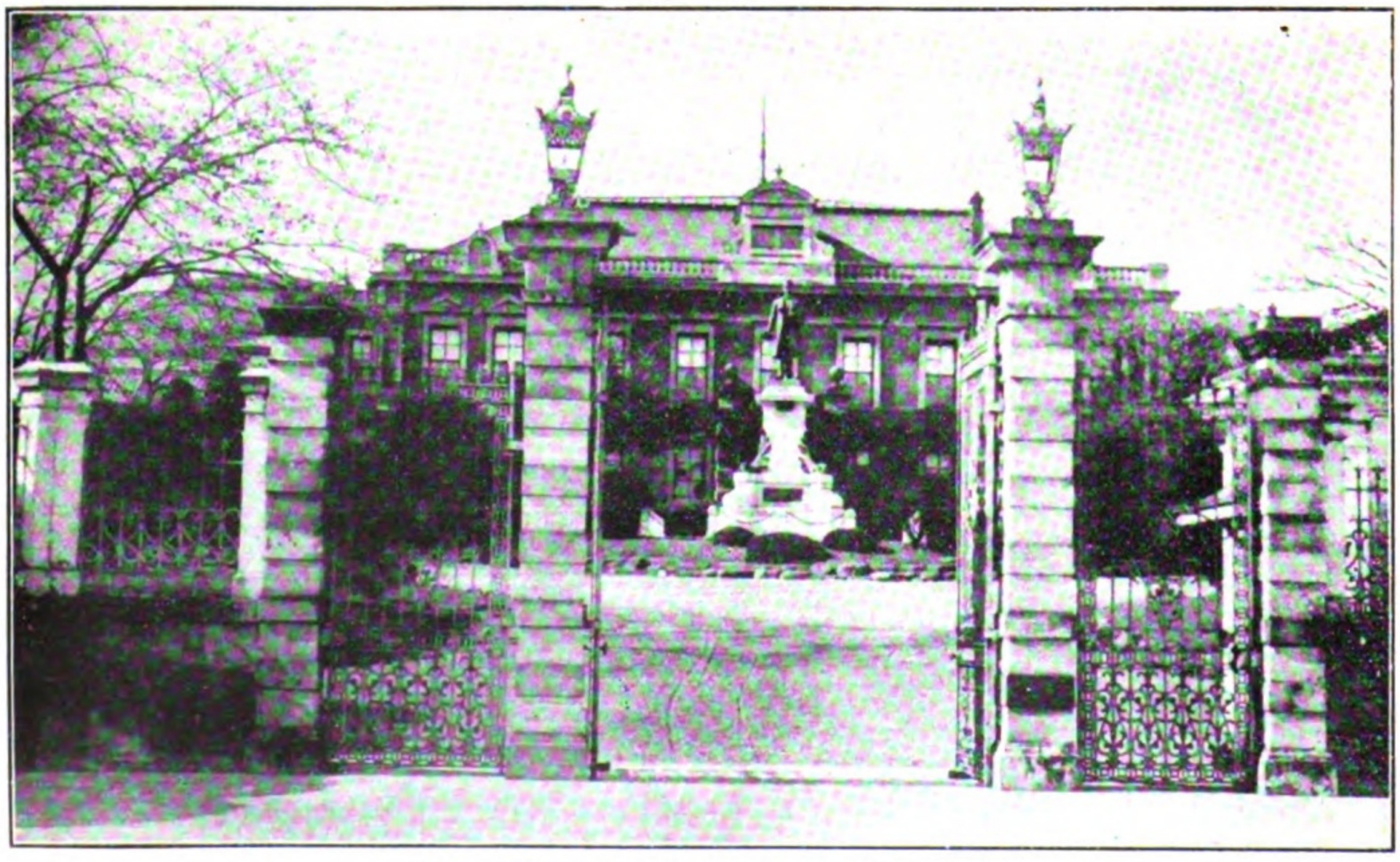
COUNT OKUMA
Le Comte Okuma
Graf Okuma

MARQUIS KOMURA
Le Marquis Komura
Marquis Komura



DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS
Le Département des affaires étranger
Das Ministerium der auswärtigen Angelegenheiten

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majority of judges were of foreign nationality.

In respect to the opening of the interior, the opponents insisted that we were not ready yet for mixed residents, and that some dreadful consequence might follow it. As for foreign judges in Japanese courts, they severely accused Okuma of violating the constitution then promulgated.

Okuma became the victim of a political fanatic. The would-be assasin was but an expression of the feeling of his opponents. With his resignation, treaties negotiated by him were declared to be void. His successors respectively took up the task in vain.

Thus different attempts were made and followed by successive disappointments, and the last successful attempt to revise the treaties was reserved to Count Mutsu.

THE DIPLOMATIC VICTORY OF JAPAN—TREATIES REVISED

The year 1894 in the history of Japan, should be regarded as the day of rebirth of Japan ; because it was marked by two great events. In August, the war with China was formally declared ; not offensive but defensive. It would be unnecessary to dwell in detail on this. The object of the war was to check China's constant interference in Korea, and to maintain the peace of the Far East. Our army not only manifested bravery, but waged a humane war. "The massacre of Port Arthur" was reported and exaggerated by Creelman, the war correspondent of the *New York World*. The world, however, is too wise to be deceived by his pen. After this war, the real Japan came to be reflected to Western eyes ; as a foe, formidable ; as a friend, powerful. Japan like Prussia under Frederick the Great, has raised herself into the front rank of nations.

Another event was a structual result and land mark of diplomacy. After weary negotiation, Japan entered into the possession of full autonomy. On the 26th of August, Lord Kimberly and Viscount Aoki in London ; and on Nov. 22nd 1894, Secretary Gresham and Minister Kurino at Washington, respectively signed the new treaties.

CONSULAR JURISDICTION ABOLISHED

Towsend .Harris wrote in the *Japan Times*, in 1875, on Consular Jurisdiction in Japan : "The gift of the extraterritorial right to the American in Japan, as it is stipulated in the treaty, is the thing which is against my conscience. I am now old and am very sorry that I cannot take off these unjust articles before I die. I hope that in the future others at least will witness the change." On the rock of consular jurisdiction, several cabinets were wrecked ; this vexed problem led to constant internal ferment. To substitute the inadequate institution, many suggestions were proposed, considered and withdrawn. One time, we sent a commissioner to Egypt to investigate the organization of mixed tribunals.

The report was that when the natives and persons of different nationalities became involved, there arose not only endless complexity, but often a total failure of justice.

How Towsend Harris would have rejoiced to see this act of judicious treatment done ! We threw off the yoke. The revised treaties with respective powers provide the abandonment of consular jurisdiction. The eighteenth

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article of the new treaty with the United States reads as follows:

"The present treaty shall, from the date it comes into force, be substituted in place of the Treaty of Peace and Amity concluded on the 3rd day of the 3rd month of the seventh year of Kayei, corresponding to the 31st day of March, 1854; the Treaty of Amity and Commerce concluded on the 19th day of the 6th month of the 5th year of Ansei, corresponding to the 29th of July 1858; the Tariff Convention concluded on the 13th day of the 5th month of the 2nd year of Keio, corresponding to the 25th day of June, 1866; the Convention concluded on the 25th day of the 7th month of the 11th year of Meiji, corresponding to the 25th day of July, 1878, and all arrangements and agreements subsidiary thereto concluded or existing between the high contracting parties, and from the same date such treaties, conventions, arrangements, and agreements shall cease to be binding, and in consequence, the jurisdiction then exercised by courts of the United States in Japan and all the exceptional privileges, exemptions and immunities then enjoyed by citizens of the United States as a part of, or appointed to such jurisdiction shall absolutely and without notice cease and determine, and thereafter all such jurisdiction shall be assumed and exercised by Japanese courts."

The first sub-section provided that all treaties then existing between the United States and Japan should become void on the day when the new treaty took effect. The second sub-section showed clearly that, as a consequence of the first, consular jurisdiction of the United States in Japan would be abolished. If it had left out the last sub-section, it would be interpreted that the jurisdiction abandoned by the United States, naturally as well as logically belonged to Japanese authority. But, by inserting this subsection, it leaves no room for question.

Thus consular jurisdiction in Japan came to an end in 1899, when the new treaties took effect, and all foreigners within Japanese borders came under the exclusive jurisdiction of Japan.

FOREIGN RESIDENTS UNDER THE NEW ORDER OF THINGS

The conservative thought and local opinion of the foreign residents were on the whole against the surrender of their own jurisdiction. Very naturally they did not like to come under Japanese jurisdiction, having possessed immunitites and, practically, independence of local laws. It is inevitable that change should bring with it some inconvenience arising from unfamiliarity with Japanese methods of administration. But transition has taken place without friction, and experience will show that the new order is favorable to foreign residents.

Now the whole Empire of Japan is thrown open, our friendly feeling toward foreigners is deepened; the cord of friendship with regard to treaty powers are fastened strong. Above all our courts constitute a moral safeguard in administration of new codes quite efficient in all requirements of the case. The late President McKinley remarked in his message to the Second Session of the Fifty Sixth Congress of the United States:—

"The closing year has witnessed a decided strengthening of Japan's relation to other states. The development of her independent judicial and administrative functions under the treaties which took effect July 17, 1899, has proceded without international friction, showing the competence of the Japanese to hold a foremost place among modern peoples. As a factor for promoting the general interests of peace, order, and fair commerce in the Far East, the influeene of Japan hardly can be overestimated."

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JAPAN'S FINANCE AND ECONOMY

THE general financial policy adopted at the time of the framing of the Budget for the preceding financial year, that the basis of the annual accounts should be consolidated by maintaining the balance between the revenue and expenditure; that the public loans which had so suddenly increased should be readjusted by avoiding the flotation of new loans and augmenting the funds for the redemption of the existing ones, and at the same time the general harmony of the economic world should be promoted. The Budget for the financial year 1910–11 was also framed on the basis of this general policy; and moreover, plans were made, so far as reliable sources of revenue permitted, with respect to those undertakings which were absolutely indispensable for national progress and industrial development. The most important of these undertakings were the following:—

The necessity being recognized for readjusting the tax laws which were established to meet emergencies in the late war and of making more equitable the incidence of taxes upon the nation, the rate of land-tax was reduced by 8 per mille, and the rate of succession tax was also lowered and the delay allowed for its payment was lengthened; and some alterations were made respecting the business tax, sugar excise, textiles consumption tax, and others. In short, as revisions were carried out which were calculated to reduce the receipts by $7,500,000, it is believed that the decrease in receipts during the financial year 1910–11 will be about $5,500,000.

While carrying out administrative readjustment and effecting retrenchment in Government expenses, it was decided at the same time to solve a long-standing question by increasing by about 25 per cent. the salaries of Government officials and allowances of non-commissioned officers and privates. Although this would entail an increase of $5,500,000 in the annual expenditure, an economy of $1,800,000 was, on the other hand, effected by retrenchment as a result of administrative readjustment, so that the net amount for which revenue had to be found was $3,700,000.

As regards the sum to be transferred to the sinking fund in 1910–11, $3,750,000 was specially added to the redemption fund, and as a result, the sums to be transferred to the fund from the general account and the railway account come altogether to $96,950,000; and of the total sum, the amount to be devoted to the repayment of the principal will be $30,400,000.

The total Budget for 1910–11, which, on being framed on these plans, was passed at the twenty-sixth session of the Imperial Diet, reached with the addition of the Supplementary Budget the sum of $267,151,930 for both the revenue and expenditure. If, moreover, to the above is added the Supplementary Budget amounting to $6,973,226, which was passed at the twenty-seventh session of the Diet in consequence of the an-

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nexation of Chōsen, serious inundations in various parts of Japan, and the spread of pest throughout Manchuria, which all occurred in the course of 1910, the total revenue and expenditure will each come up to $274,125,157; and the carrying out of the Budgets happily produced good results both financially and from the view point of general economy.

The four per cent. loans which were issued in March, 1910 and subsequently in home and foreign markets for the conversion of national loans amounted to $278,000,000; and the total amount of five per cent. loans which were redeemed with the proceeds of the new loans was $259,000,000. The amount annually saved in interest by these conversions will be $1,800,000.

In August, 1910, the annexation of Chōsen took place; and many plans were made in regard to the new territory, such as the construction and improvement of railways, establishment of harbor accommodation, road construction, cadastral survey, and aid to various industries. It was decided to open special accounts for these undertakings and to make up from the general account in case the revenues on those occounts are insufficient to meet the expenditures. This decision was carried into effect on the 1st October last. The sum thus defrayed out of the general account during the six months from October till the following March was $1,400,000; but as a considerable portion of the sum allowed by the Budget for the expenses of the late Residency-General was set free, the annexation did not entail a marked increase in the expenditure for the past financial year.

In August, 1910, serious inundations causing widespread sufferings took place in Tokyo and several other prefectures; and grants in aid of prefectural engineering works were made out of the national treasury. The amount paid out as grants unprovided for in the Budget was $2,035,000 and that allowed by a supplementary budget was $1,540,000, making a total of $3,580,000.

Upon comparing the actual results of the revenue for the financial year 1909–10 with the estimates, we find that in the ordinary section, as regards the taxes and duties, while there was a falling off in the receipts from the sugar excise, textiles consumption tax, and customs duties, there was an increased yield from the income, business, and *saké* taxes, resulting in a net increase of $1,435,000, and there was an increase of $3,980,000 in stamp-receipts and $890,000 in receipts from Government undertakings and State property, making the total increase in the ordinary section $6,390,000. In the extraordinary section, as the amount brought over from the preceding financial year exceeded the estimates by $70,445,000, the excess in the whole section over the Budget estimates amounted to $72,135,000. In short, the total revenue was $33,877,000, being an excess of $73,525,000 over the Budget estimates which had been put at $260,240,000.

Although it is yet too early too obtain a definite account of the actual revenue for the financial year 1910–11, it is calculated according to the present estimate that there will be an increase, as regards the taxes and duties, in the receipts from the sugar excise, tax on bourses, and traveling and succession taxes; but as exemptions from land-tax and delay allowed in payment of the tax on account of the inundations in

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various parts of the country during the year in question involved heavy losses to the treasury, and the customs receipts were less than had been anticipated, a net deficit in the revenue from taxes is expected to be about $2,500,000. Further, although an excess over the Budget estimates of $950,000 in stamp receipts and of $665,000 in the yield from Government undertakings and State property is anticipated, a decrease is expected in the miscellaneous receipts, so that there will probably be a net decrease in the ordinary revenue of $1,195,000. In the extraordinary section, as the amount brought over from the preceding financial year is expected to be $58,890,000 in excess of the Budget estimates, the total increase will probably be $59,750,000. The total ordinary and extraordinary revenue will, it is accordingly believed, exceed the Budget estimates by $58,590,000.

The condition of the economic world in 1910 may be briefly described by stating that through an increase in the national savings and the redemption of national loans, the capital in the market became abundant and both commerce and industry made steady progress.

The arrangements made by the Government since 1908 in regard to the national finance and debt have proved very effective and, together with the general condition of the economic world at the end of 1909, led at the beginning of the following year to a still greater abundance of capital in the financial world and brought on a downward tendency in the rate of interest. The Government took advantage of this occasion to commence the conversion into four per cent. loans of those five per cent. public loans whose period for remaining unredeemed had expired. Thereupon, anticipations made by the market of the future course of monetary circulation brought interest of all kinds to an almost unprecedentedly low rate, and the stock market which had long lain inert showed some signs of activity, and even upon the coming of the season when there is usually a general demand for capital, hardly any change was perceptible in the slack circulation of money.

Meanwhile, the Government's plan for the conversion and redemption of its loans made gradual progress; and as sources of revenue for the redemption, four per cent. loans were issued at home and similar loans in French money and in sterling were raised abroad, and with the proceeds of these loans and the sinking fund, various five per cent. loans and exchequer bonds were redeemed to the value of $261,650,000 (of which $124,900,000 was redeemed in cash and $136,750,000 was exchanged for the low-interest loan bonds). Consequently, although very few attempts were made by public corporations or private companies to import foreign capital, there was in the course of last year an increase of $18,820,000 in the postal savings and of $55,335,000 in the deposits at the banks in various important places, and on the contrary the loans advanced by the banks showed an increase of only $42,850,000, so that the circulation of money became still more slack and, notwithstanding a slight briskness at the end of the year, the low rate of interest was always maintained.

In these circumstances, as with this abundance of capital in the financial world, many efforts were made for its investment, the debentures issued by banks and companies were generally

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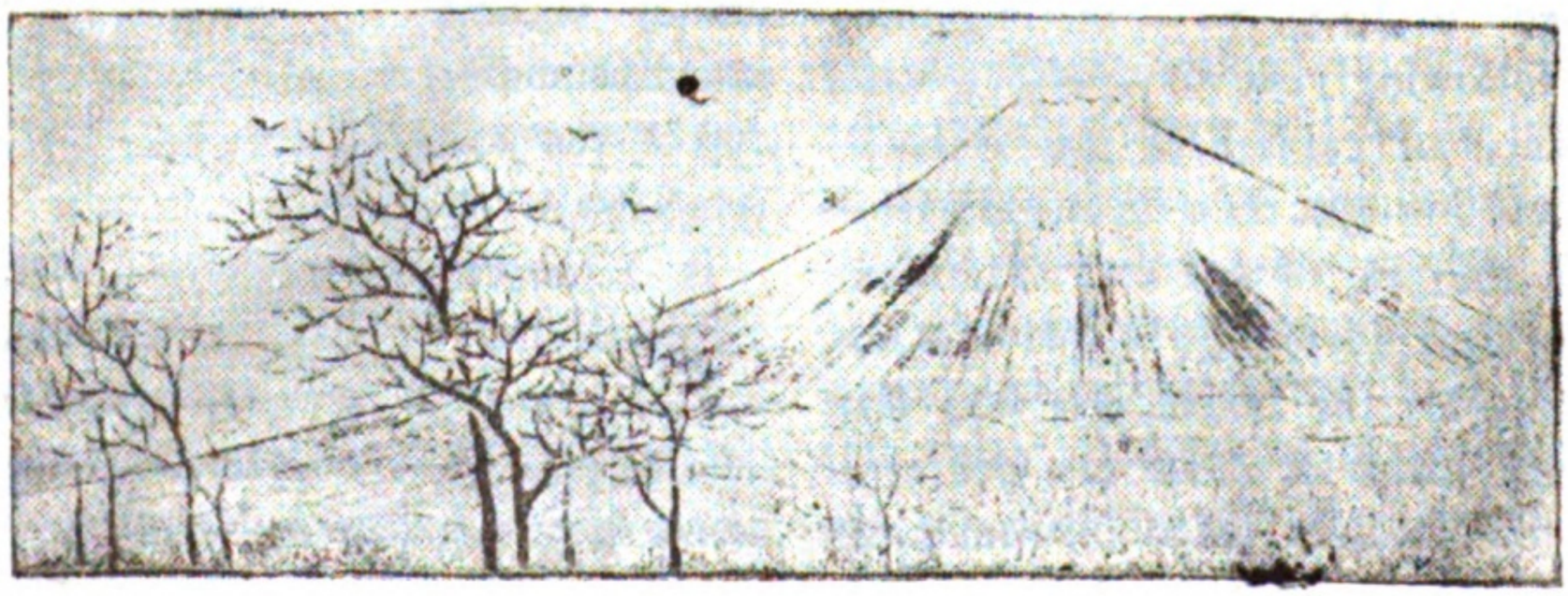
welcomed as objects of investment ranking next to the national loans in reliability. The issues of these debentures always produced good results, and those issued during the year amounted altogether to $43,035,000. As the business world was thus given a suitable stimulus by the supply of cheap capital, together with the rise in the price of silver, annexation of Chōsen, reduction of taxes, and revision of the customs tariff, the way was opened for recovery from the stagnation of trade. The traffic on the Imperial Railways increased rapidly, aud their earnings, the largest on record, reached the total of $42,375,000. Moreover, although the capital for new enterprises during the year amounted to $243,500,000, the attitude of business men remained calm; and it was most satisfactory to note that speculative enterprises did not make their appearance in succession as was the case immediately after the late war.

The results of foreign trade are worthy of notice. The exports amounted to $229,000,000 and the imports to $232,000,000, making the total volume of trade $461,000,000. Although this sum appears slightly less than the figures for 1907, it should be noted that the trade with Chōsen during the last four months of the year is not included in the above figures for 1910. If the volume of the trade with Chōsen during the corresponding months of 1907 were deducted from the figures for that year, the amounts for last year would be the highest on record. Although this great increase cannot be attributed solely to any one or two causes, still one of the principal causes of the increase in exports would appear to be the fact that the producers of raw silk, cotton yarn, and other articles have of late been able to reduce the cost of production by the use of cheap capital and improved methods of production and to export the manufactured articles at low prices; and as the increase in imports is mainly due to the increased importation of raw materials like raw cotton and wool, the results of the foreign trade may be considered to be satisfactory notwithstanding the excess of imports over exports amounting to $3,000,000.

Thus the market had from the spring of last year a large supply of capital generally from the redemption of a large amount of national loans and increase in savings; and this led to the lowering of the rate of interest and to the extension of enterprise. Moreover, our foreign trade has made suitable progress; and it is most satisfactory to see that our economic capacity is yearly expanding and the nation is by prudence and thrift husbanding its resources.



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Le Prince Katsura, Ministre du Finance
Herzog Katsura ; der Finanzminister

R. WAKATSUKI, VICE-MINISTER OF FINANCE
Mon. R. Wakatsuki, Vice-ministre du Finacee
R. Wakatsuki ; der Vice-finanzministnr

DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE. *Le Département du Finance.*
Das Finanzministerium

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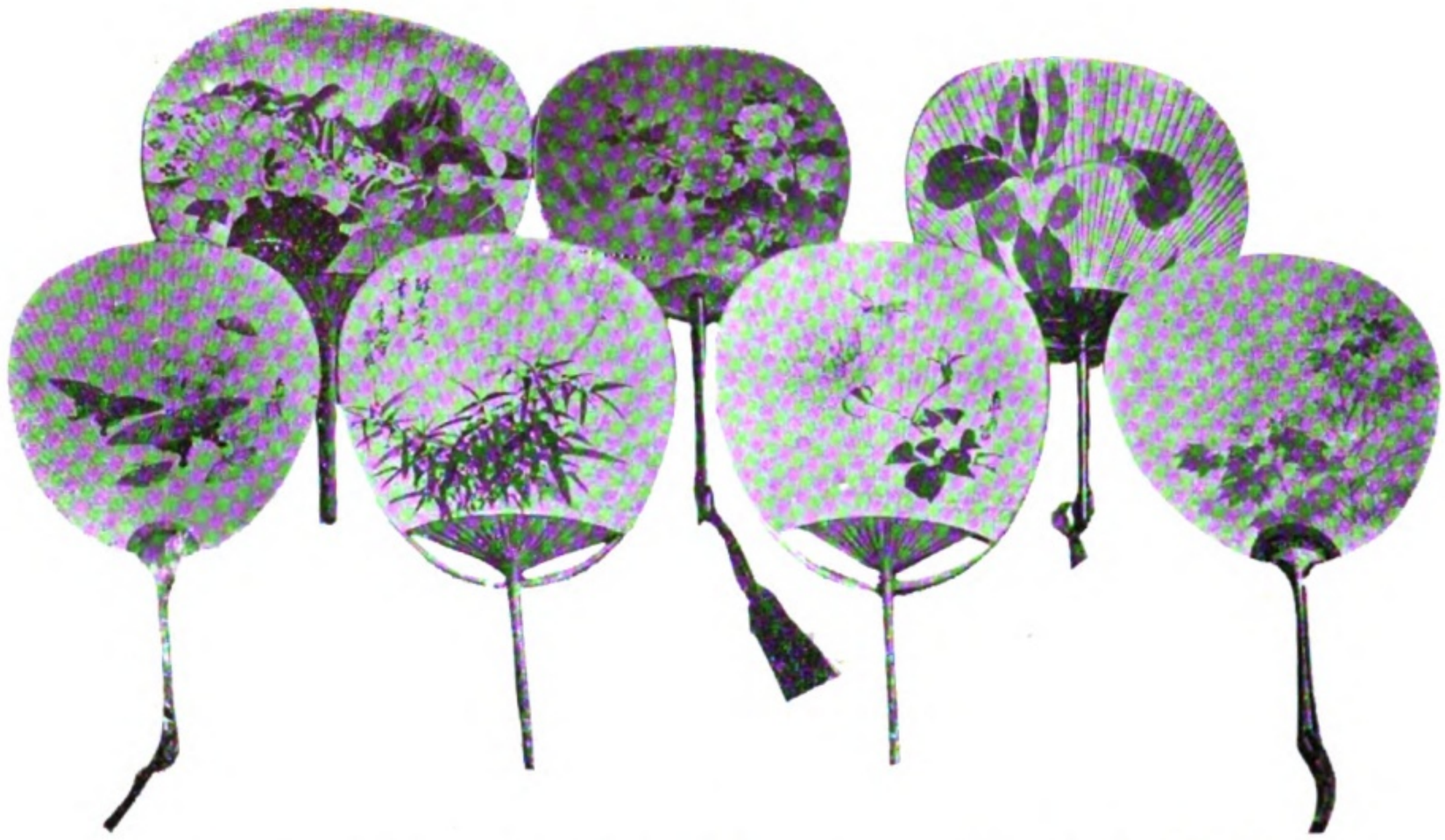
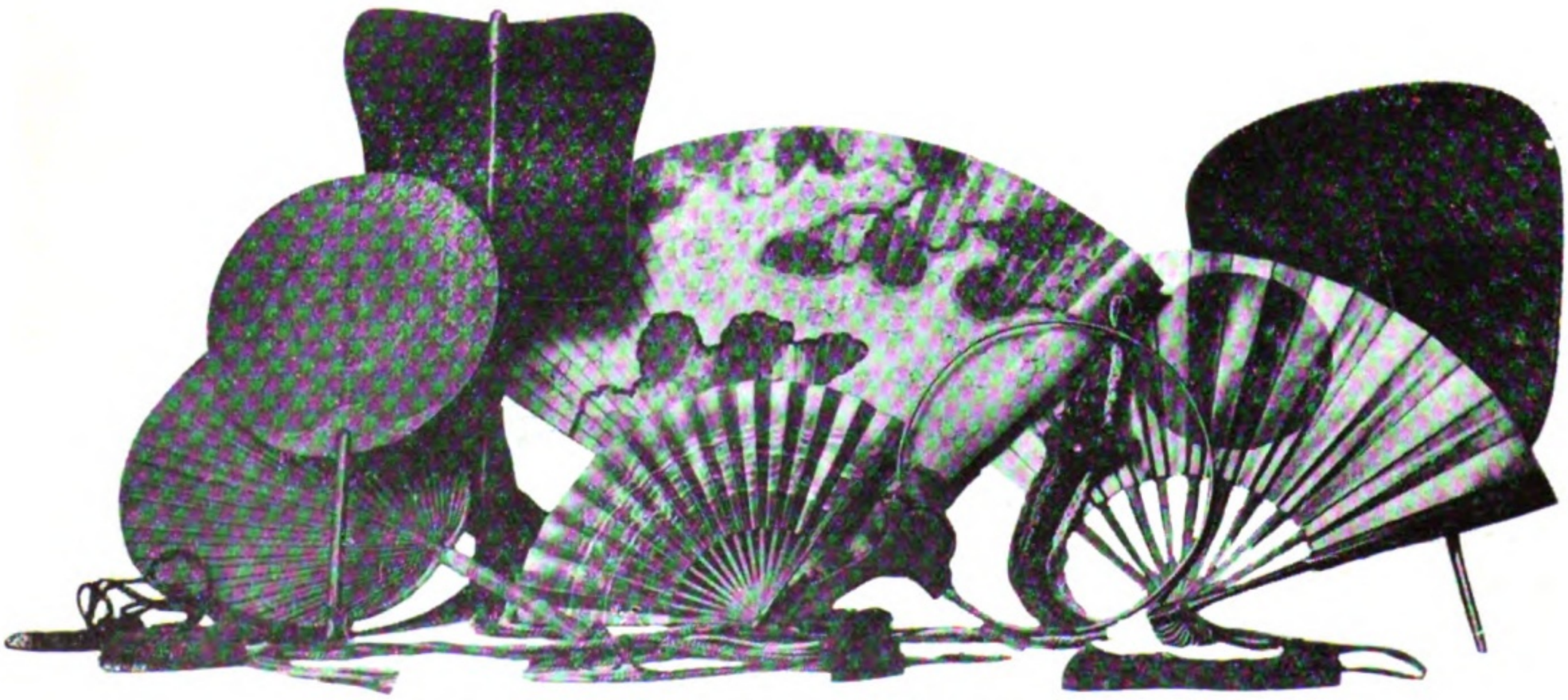


ROUND FANS. *Des éventails rond.* *Die runde Fächer*

FOLDING FANS. *Des évenlails qui se replie sur lui-même.* *Die gefaltete Fächer*



OLD OFFICIAL AND COURT FANS (IMPERIAL MUSEUM)
Vieil éventails official et du Cour (Musée Imperial)
Die ceremoniöse und offizielle Fächer (Das kaiserliche Museum)

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FANS

THE fan is one of few ancient inventions not introduced into Japan from a foreign country, having been designed by Empress Jingo (192-210 A D.), who is said to have found the suggestion in a bat's wing. It was first made of thirty-nine thin stays of *hinoki* wood, fastened with silk cord, the long ends of which furnished a decorative feature; the name, *hi-ogi*, meaning 'wood folding fan.'

Such fans soon became necessary accessories for Court ladies, being used on all ceremonial occasions, as much to shield their faces while in the presence of gentlemen, as for the more usual purpose of fanning.

In later periods paper fans were made after the same fashion, the number of stays being, of course, greatly reduced, and the art of painting was employed for the embellishment of both kinds. Just when these came into use is not known, but the custom of carrying a fan had already been adopted by nobles and officials of high rank, who used it in giving orders as they had formerly used the *shaku*, or baton, in the presence of the emperor or on ceremonial occasions.

Two *hi-ogi* said to have been among the personal effects of Emperor Antoku (1181) and a paper folding fan bearing Chinese characters, that belonged to Emperor Takakura (1169) are preserved at Itsukushima shrine (Miyajima); also an *ogi* with colored pictures, which was presented by a member of the Taira family. At Kumano shrine, ten colored fans in a lacquered box are held as national treasures, and similar ones are among the relics of Asuka, all the above being deemed the oldest fans extant in Japan.

Paper *ogi* were made with bamboo stays numbering five, seven, or ten; those with five long since went out of fashion, thirteen now being generally used. In selecting a fan the Japanese man or woman notes very carefully, according to choice, whether the outside stays are the width of the fold in the paper, or a narrow strip down its center; whether they are beveled or cut square at the ends, and only a certain prescribed size may be used by each, and another specified size is made for children, for no one must be without this important article, nor fail to learn the many significances attached to it in one way or another.

A man's fan is ten and a half to eleven inches in length; a woman's about seven and three quarters, and a child's not more that six, sometimes shorter. All may be in colors and with decoration, there being favorite designs, chief among which is a large sun upon a plain ground, the colors being red and gold, used interchangeably; but plain white ones are preferred by many who wish to have some friend write a poem or sketch a flower or lovely bamboo thereon.

Ogi play an important part in both *Nō* dancing and singing. A rather large one, with horizontal stripes of varying widths in silver and gold, is used by the dancers, and a smaller one of the same description by the singers.

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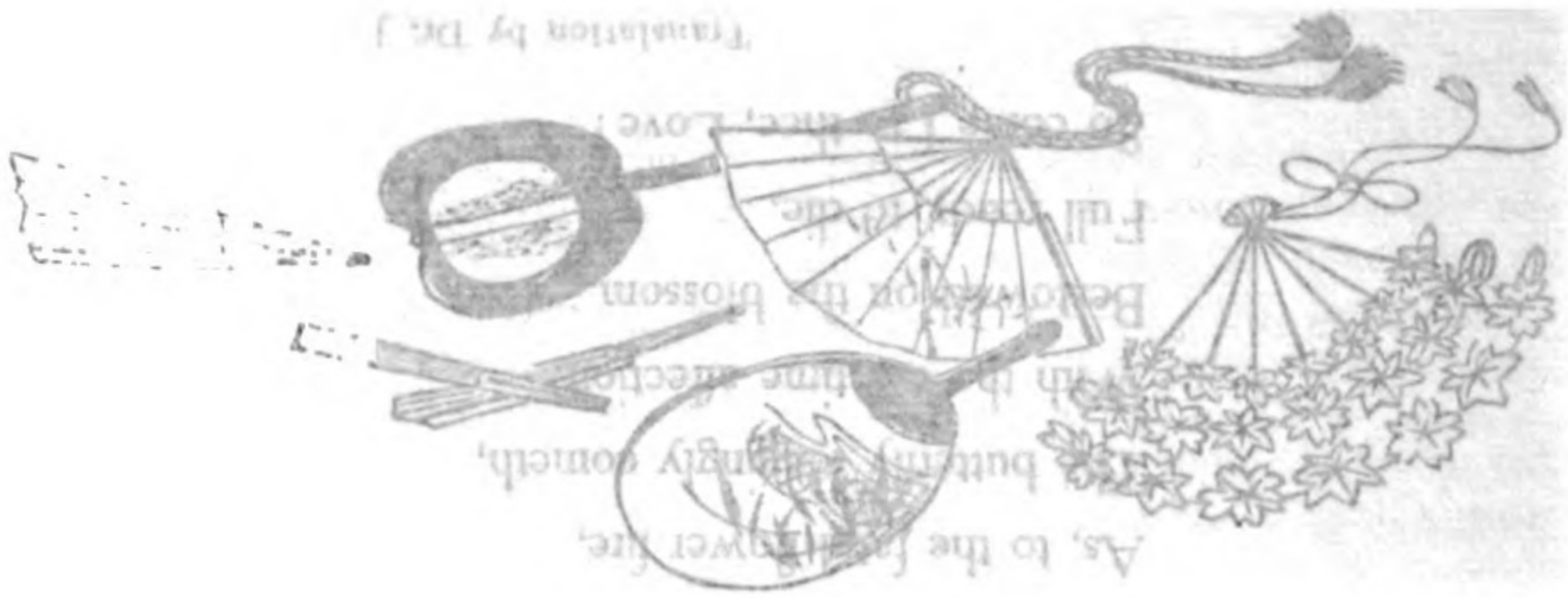


a similarly striped fan was used by ladies of the *Shogun's* Court. All are illustrated.

Another particular kind of folding fan called *suehiro* or *chukei*, is used by priests; its outer stays are curved outward so as to cause the folds to remain extended like a half open accordian. These were formerly used by Court nobles, and are also attached to presents sent to a groom by the bride's parents. *Ogi* are used as congratulatory presents for all occasions, especially marriages, and these folding fans made of silk ganze and exquisitely embroidered or daintily painted, and with carved sandal wood or ivory stays are exported in large numbers, but are not used by Japanese.

Round open fans are called *uchiwa*, and are of various kinds and uses. Highest among them is the gourd-shaped one of black lacquered wood with gold ornament, and in rare cases, even jewelled; this is the *gumbai*, or war fan used by military officers in giving commands. Interesting examples of these are in the Imperial Museums.

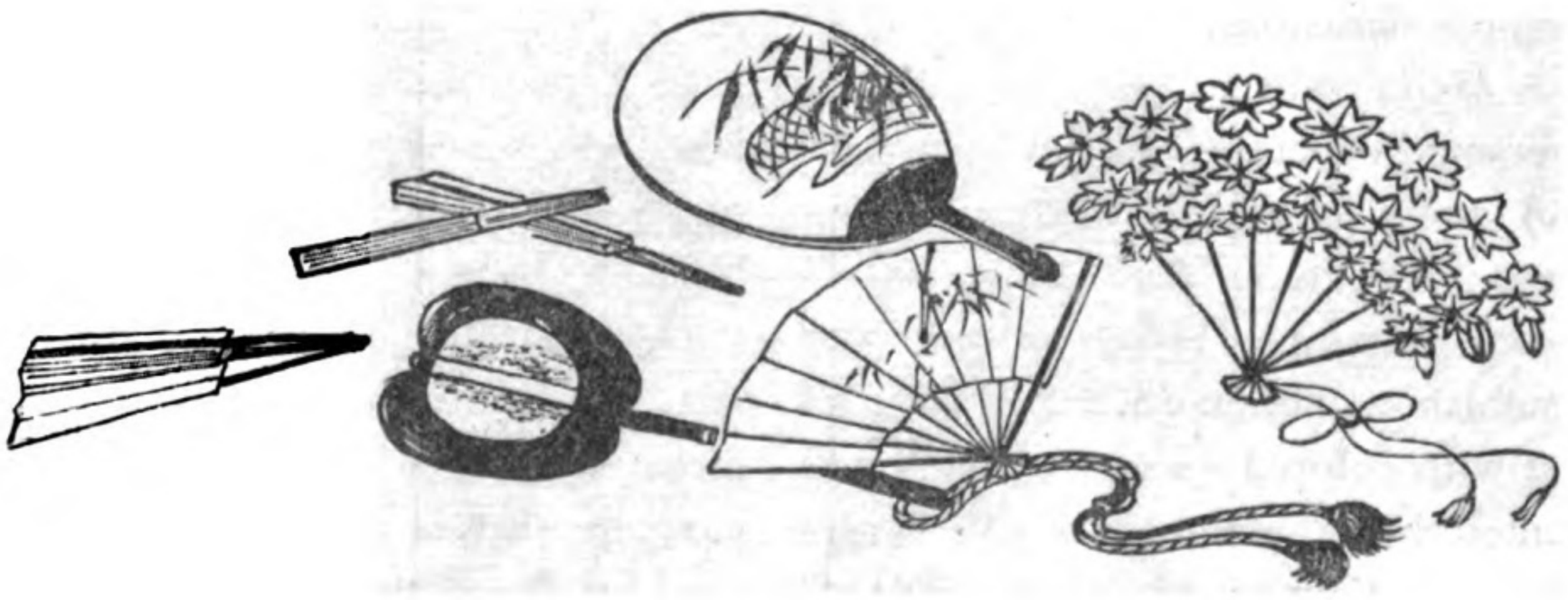
The *uchiwa*, was introduced from China. The ordinary one has a frame of bamboo covered with paper, but others are made of a thin silk stretched tightly over a wire rim (*kinu uchiwa*), feathers are sometimes used (*ha uchiwa*), and the paper ones are coated with the juice of green persimmons (*shibu uchiwa*), or lacquer, (*midzu-uchiwa*).

The paper ones are used largely by Japanese tradesmen for advertising, and hundreds of thousands are exported to foreign countries for the same purpose. The silk ones are also largely exported and sold for their decorative effect; they were not made until the early nineteenth century. *Ha uchiwa* are seldom seen. *Shibu uchiwa* are used by kitchen-maids to fan their charcoal fires. *Midzu uchiwa* are so called because they are sprinkled with water (*midzu*) while being used, to make the air cooler.

Natsukawa, Gifu and Ogi (names of places) are each known for a special kind of round fans. Those made at the first mentioned place are considered the very finest, some of which cost as much as two or three dollars, while common *uchiwa* are sold for a few cents each.

The manufacture of fans forms quite an industry in Tokyo, Kyoto and other cities. Skilled workmen make a speciality of splitting the bamboo for the frames of *uchiwa*, and artists of no mean talent are employed in decorating the fans. Among the old painters whose fan designs were such favorites, were Hishikawa Moronobu, Torii Kyonobu, Kitagawa Utamaro, Ichiyosai Toyokuni and Gototei Kunisada, and it may well be said that they were an important factor in popularizing the fan.

The center of the *uchiwa* industry in Tokyo, is Nihonbashi, where there are six large wholesale firms producing two million fans annually.



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A JAPANESE LOVER

The exquisitely illusive idealization of the highest type of Japanese poetry is well illustrated in the following verse, expressive of the undying devotion of a lover. To appreciate adequately the inimitable force and beauty of a sentiment suggested in such graceful and delicate ingenuity of language, one has to bear in mind that the Japanese *andon*, or night light, is often fed by oil that once was the life of flower seeds. Now that the flower has faded into flame, fatal even to touch, the moth comes back with the old time affection he had for the blossom, and plunges into the flower-fire as a lover ready to face even death for what he loves: for the sweet flower of love becomes a flame in Japan as frequently and and as fatally as elsewhere.

Kiyete yuku:
Abura no moto wa
Natane nari;
Cho wa kogarete
Ai ni kuru,
Mukashi najimi no
Fukai naka
Shinuru kakugo de
Kitawai na.

Burn, O candle of love,
Born of the seed of flowers!
As, to the fatal flower fire,
The butterfly longingly cometh,
With the old time affection
Bestowed on the blossom,
Full ready to die,
So come I to thee, Love!

Translation by Dr. J. Ingram Bryan

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HISTORICAL FIND AT KYOTO

A relic which throws some light upon the history of the period of Hideyoshi Toyotomi (1536—1598) was recently found in a Buddhist temple in Kyoto. It is a fact well known to historians that a Hindu Mabarajah offered tribute to the Japanese warrior at his prime, when the persecution of Christians was in full swing. But unfortunately records of this intercourse have not been found which has caused great disappointment to investigators.

Lately, an old parchment was discovered in the neglected archives of the noted Buddhist temple, the Myoho-in, in Kyoto. The puzzled priests decided, after a consultation among themselves, to send it to the university to have it examined and deciphered. Prof. Idzuru, an eminent philologist, was chosen for the task, and after much labor, found it to be the rare document which has been wanted by Japanese historians.

The vellum measures 1.9 by 2.5 *shaku*. All sides, except the lower, are decorated with elaborate pictures. There is on the upper side a rich delineation of the seven hills of Rome, the god Mars being drawn upon the central hill. The left margin is embellished with the design of Romulus, Remus and the wolf, while the right side has the arms of Rome.

Japan Advertiser.

FOREIGN TOURISTS TO JAPAN

The total number of foreign tourists who visited Japan during last year was 17, 283, showing an increase of 260 as compared with those of the year before last. There were 5,730 Chinese, 3,870 Americans and 3,161 Englishmen.

The Yorodzu Choho.

NAVAL EXPANSION

The military authorities are considering the establishment of a standing division in Chosen. This has evoked once more the movement of the naval authorities for the expansion of the navy. Strange to say there exists in Japan a fierce competition between army and navy concerning the expansion of armament, and each is trying to outrival the other. When the army draws a plan for the increase of armament, the navy also follows the example and introduces a bigger plan. There is not the least doubt that the expansion of the navy is a paramount necessity and the larger portion of the appropriation for defence should be expended for the purpose, but the military authorities seem not to like the strength of the army outbalanced by the navy, and the head of the cabinet who is a representative of army gives more favor to the army. Indeed the expansion of the navy constitutes a very delicate question in Japan.

The Yomiuri Shimbun.

DISTINGUISHED VISITOR

Professor Wendell, of Harvard University, who is on a visit here was received in audience by the Emperor on Wednesday, and the learned scholar was afterward invited to tiffin given in his honor at the Shiba Palace by Prince Katsura in pursuance of the Imperial command. The Professor brought with him a personal letter of introduction from President Taft to Prince Katsura. The American Ambassador was also present.

The Professor is accompanied by his daughter whose refined and courteous manners are very highly admired by all who had the pleasure of meeting her.

The Tokyo Nichi-Nichi.

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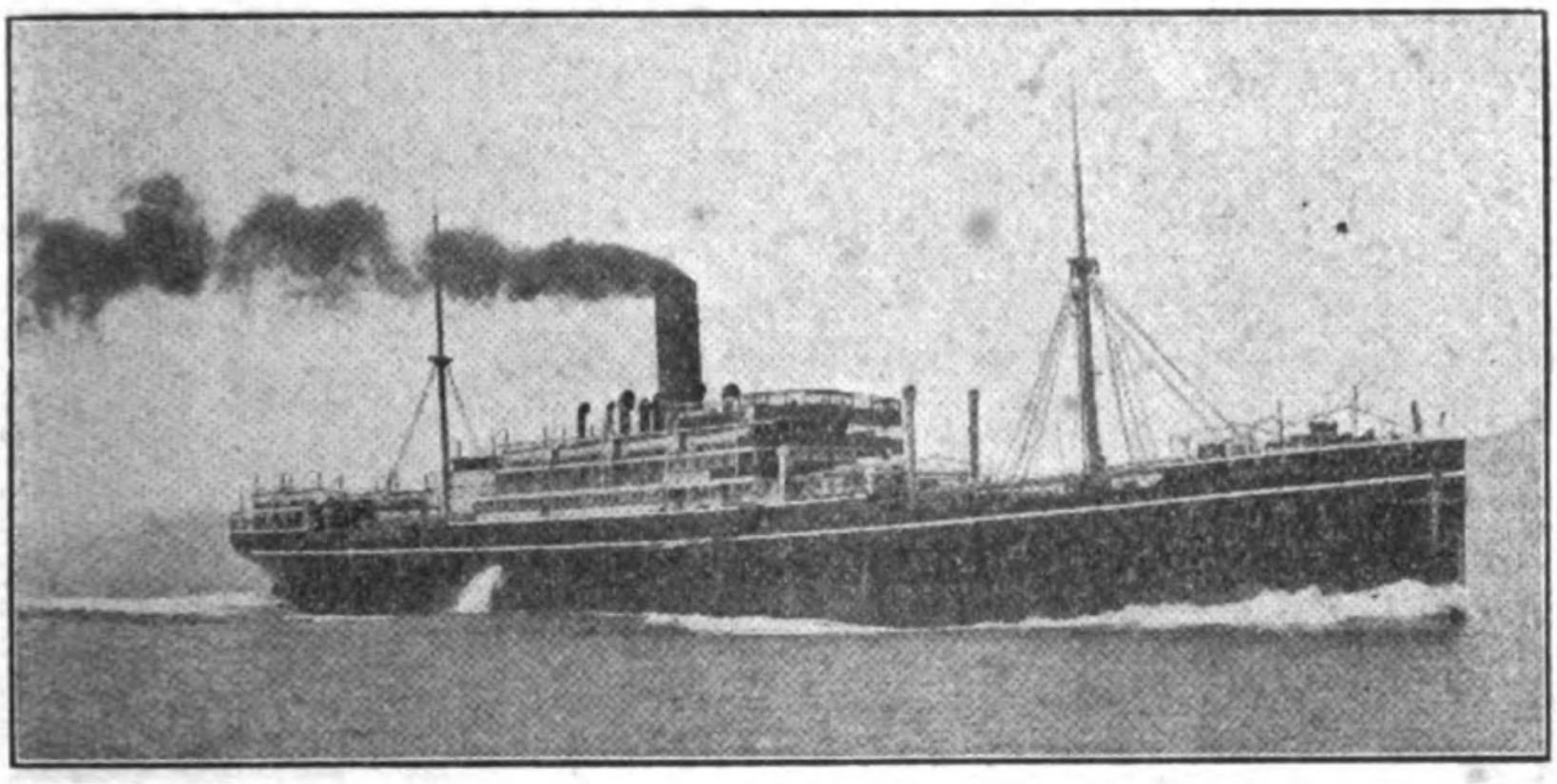

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

AUGUST
1911

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and the soil between the ridges is levelled; the second tillage is practised after the mulberries have been trimmed in the summer season, and the earth is drawn to the stocks by deep plowing; the third is performed at the end of autumn, the whole farm is deeply cultivated and the earth on the foot of the plant is dug out and removed to the middle of a ridge.

Various fertilizers are applied to mulberry farms, but quickly acting manures are usually avoided. Compost is the chief manure for the plants. Although the qualities may be varied according to the fertility of the soil and the yield of the crop, some five to six hundred *kwan** are applied per *tan* for producing some five hundred *kwan* of leaves per *tan*.

At the first tillage, half of the total amount of manure is given in a trench opened between the ridges, and the rest is applied at the second tillage in a similar manner.

On account of the fact that mulberries may often commence to decay from a wound on a cut surface, caused by unskilful cutting, or sometimes, owing to the improper position of the cut, the growth of the new shoots may be injured, the branches are cut somewhat higher when harvested, and then the remaining parts are cut off from the stock within one week after having been cropped; the cut surface is smoothed and levelled as far as possible. This operation is called *kabu-naoshi* (repairing the stock). Then observing the growth of the shoots, the bad ones are cut off. The latter operation is called *sei-shi* (pruning).

Before the third tillage, the branches are bound together, partly in order to facilitate tilling, and partly in order to keep them from being broken by the weight of the snow in winter. The ties are unbound on budding in the next spring.

The origin of the mulberry disease called dwarf-trouble is unknown, but it seems that in 1868, a man named Izaemon Shimoda discovered the disease in the vicinity of Ōme-machi, Nishitama-gun, Tokyo prefecture. However, it was only during 1881—82 that the attention of people was drawn to the disease. Since that time it spread gradually and the number of affected mulberries was increasing year after year according to the progress of the sericultural industry and the increase of mulberry farms, until the greater part of the mulberries in the whole country were attacked by the disease. The Department of Agriculture and Commerce established a department in the Tokyo Sericultural Institute, in 1896, for the special purpose of investigating the disease, and several experts were appointed to carry out the researches. Thus the cause, methods of prevention and cure of the disease have been investigated and studied.

Generally the symptoms are found on three diferent parts, namely, on the top, on the middle or lower part, and on various parts of the branches, but the first case is the most common.

The disease affecting the tree more violently, the leaves are reduced gradually in size, though their number increases and their color becomes a pale green. The twigs increase remarkably in number, but each one becomes slender and weak. At the last period, when the entire system has been affected by the disease, the leaves become smaller and smaller, and their number continues to increase; the branches become thinner and thinner, and at the same time produce fine twigs to such an extent that the whole tree appears in the shape of a broom. The leaves fade at last, turning yellow. The diseased tree produces few root-fibres, and the fine rootlets branched from the secondary root-fibre are greatly reduced in number.

Mulberries planted by the *negari-jitate* method are most liable to be attacked by the disease, while those planted by the *kyoboku-jitate* method are rarely attacked by the disease. But mulberries, even planted by the former method are more seldom affected by the disease, when cut early, than those which are cropped late.

Excessive manuring, especially when great quantities of quickly acting ma-

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* *kwan*=3.75 kilograms.

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A BEAUTY IN FASHIONABLE DRESS (FROM A COLOR PRINT BY TOYOKUNI I.)
Une belle à la mode (Apres un impression en couleur par Toyokuni I.)
Eine Schöne an der herrschende Tracht (Aus einem kolorierte Drücke von Toyokuni I.)

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

VOLUME TWO AUGUST, 1911 NUMBER FOUR

TOYOKUNI THE FIRST

By H. SHUGIO

THE first Toyokuni (Ichiyosai), the greatest of the Utagawa school, was born in a house which is no more in existence, on Mishimacho, of Shiba district, near the famous Shinto temple of Shimmei and the great temple of Zojoji, which is now enclosed within the Shiba park. His family name was Kurahashi and his given name Kumakichi. His father, Kurahashi Gorobei, was a professional carver of wooden images and he was noted for his wonderful skill in carving the figures of Ichikawa Hakuyen, second of the Ichikawa family of actors.

Toyokuni was a born artist, having no doubt inherited an artistic temperament from his father, and he was fond of drawing all sorts of pictures as soon as he was able to handle a brush. He was apprenticed to Toyohara, founder of the Utagawa school, by whom he was beloved, and it is said he was the greatest favorite among his pupils. Toyokuni was a great admirer of Itcho Giokuzan's and of Shunyei's style of painting and it seems somewhat to have influenced his works. He was the most popular Ukiyoye painter of his day and he had more pupils in his studio than any other artist of the Ukiyoye school, having among them many persons of good family and high rank.

Toyokuni is considered by many to have been the greatest delineator of our stage life and our actors. During his early days, the print world was, one might say, dominated by Utamaro and Hokusai, and Toyokuni's early prints, as well as his water color drawings, show their influences in no small degree, but he developed his own individual style later, which is quite independent, full of fine quality and more delicate in drawing.

There seems to have been at one time a great personal rivalry between him and Utamaro, and there is a story *a propos* to this, that Toyokuni's prints of the popular play of the love affairs of Ohan and Choyemon, acted by the great Ichikawa Yawozo, were the talk of the whole city of Yedo, and became so

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nures are given, causes the disease to a great extent. It is found in many fertile farms, but seldom in a sterile one. The plants are more or less affected by the disease according to the varieties of the mulberries planted, and the disease is generally widespread in a year following a good crop. Many mulberries, several years after planting, are attacked by the disease.

The disease is caused by a physiological disorder due to successive plucking or cutting of the leaves or of the stock, and the causes are theoretically explained as follows.

The plant feeds itself chiefly on the reserve materials during the first period of its growth, but it takes nutrients from the soil and air, and assimilates them as the various organs gradually develop. Therefore, during the period from the budding of the plant to its most vigorous growth, the reserve materials are consumed step by step; when the activity of the plant is approaching an end, the products in the leaves are transferred to the bark of both branches and roots and reserved for the next budding. The quantities of nutrients which have been taken from the reserve materials during the period of growth, are different according to the variety of the plant.

Observations in mulberry-root-decaying were made with the following results.

Although the disease had not yet caused great damage to the mulberries, once attacking the plants, it infected the neighboring ones, thus spreading and causing most serious effects.

Mulberries attacked by the disease faded early in autumn, many of the roots decayed, and white mycelliums and root-like-mycellium-bundles were found on the surface of the wood beneath the root-bark.

Many mushrooms were produced, assembling in large numbers on the root-stocks of the diseased mulberries; these mushrooms are called *kuwa-take* and may be gathered for food.

The disease was caused by the parasitic growth of a kind of fungus *agraicus melleus vahl.* The white mycelliums and root-like-mycellium-bundle were nutritive organs of the fungus, and the mushrooms which came forth at the close of the autumn were the pilerses of the fungus; the color was golden brown; the diameter of the cap was some one to three inches in length; several were produced in a group. The basidium had a club-form on which four basidia were attached. The spores which were born by the sterigma were elliptic; the long diameter was 7–9 μ, and the short one 4–6 μ.

Mulberries affected with bacteria-disease showed black spots on the bark, which cracked when more severely attacked. All new branches and leaves of the diseased mulberries bore dark brown spots on their surfaces, but no difference was found in their roots. The disease was known to be caused by a parasitic microbe called the *bacillus cubonianus.*

The *apriona rugicollis chev.* is one of the most formidably injurious insects, which lives on mulberries in every district of our country. The larva conceals itself in the trunk of the mulberries and injures the wood so much, that in extreme cases, the plant is killed; the *imago* gnaws the branches for laying its eggs or sometimes eats the bark, causing the plant to die. They appear in the beginning of July in the vicinity of Tokyo, and live from one or two to several weeks. During this period the insects gnaw a hoof-shaped cavity in the branches in which they deposit over a hundred eggs. The latter are usually laid when it is quiet, rarely in the full blaze of day light. The eggs hatch within two weeks in summer, while those deposited in the autumn, remain as they are until the next spring. The insect passes two years in the larval stage, and then changes into a pupa in the spring, when the *imago* comes forth after several weeks pupation.

The eggs have a parasitic fly which belongs to the genus *tetrasticus* and greatly prevents the propagation of the insect.

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DWARF MULBERRIES. *Les arbres nain de mûre.* *Die verkürzene Maulbeerä:me*

TREE MULBERRIES. *Les arbres de murier.* *Die Maulbeerbäume*

GATHERING MULBERRY LEAVES. *La cueillette des feuillage de mûre*
Die zusammenbringende Maulbeerbaumblätter

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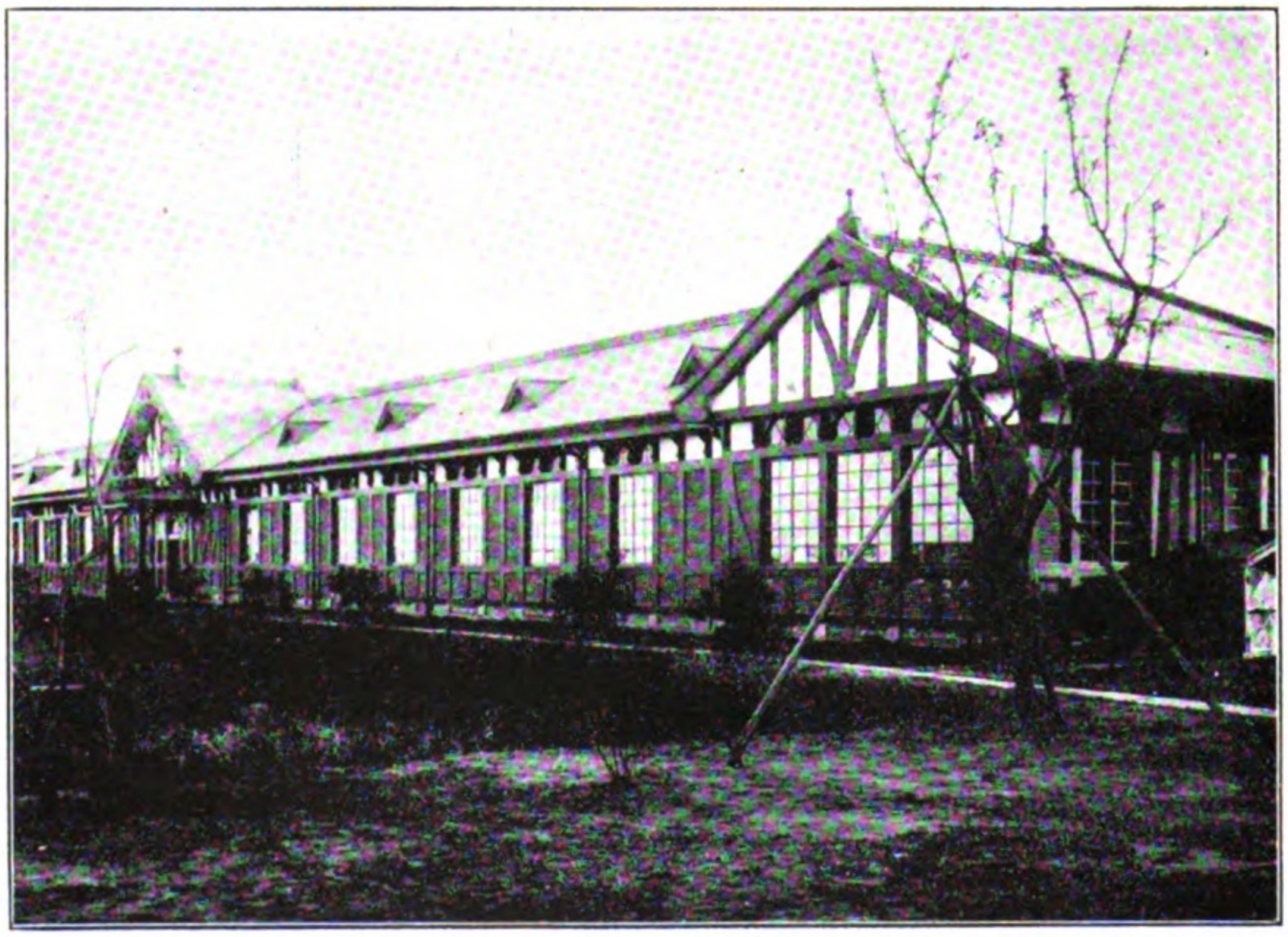
ENTRANCE, CHEMICAL LABORATORY. *Entrée de l'Laboratoire Chemical.*
Der Eingang ; das chemische Laboratorium



ELECTRO-CHEMICAL LABORATORY. *L'Laboratoire Electro-chemical.*
Das elektro, chemiche Laboratorium

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hundred sheets of sketches left by the late master and raised this memorial monument, assisted also by the friends of the departed.

"Sakuragawa Jihisai came on their behalf to ask me to write their memorial and I could not refuse, being also an old friend of the late master.

"Middle of Autumn, the 11th year of Bunsei, composed by Kiokado Yoho Magao, written by Santoan Shosha Kioden."

Engraved on the back of the stone tablet are the names of book sellers, fan dealers, and subscribers to the monument of the general society of the Utagawa school.

Toyokuni's first publisher was Idsumiya Ichibei, of Shimmei, Shiba district, and the prints published by him were the portraits of actors. His studio was in Kami-makicho, Kiobashi district, and in his older days he was often called Makicho Toyokuni. There an many critics who consider him to be the greatest portrait painter of the Ukiyoye school and I also think he is one of the greatest. I was told by a friend, of a portrait done by the first Toyokuni when he was forty-six years old, of a merchant who lived in Kuramaye of Asakusa district. It was done in a rapid sketchy manner, but it was so well drawn that he thought while he was looking at it as if it seemed almost to breathe and speak out and he told me he never saw such a life-like portrait before in his life.

There is a delightful story about Toyokuni which shows what kind of man he was. A very rich merchant was very anxious to have his portrait painted by Toyokuni, the great and popular artist of the day. He went one day to his studio with all sorts of valuable presents and requested the master to do his portrait. Toyokuni agreed at once but it was not done for many months, and the merchant, being very anxious to have it, sent messengers quite often during these months to ask the master to finish his portrait. Now one of those messengers was a young boy who saw an outline drawing of his master's portrait, and Toyokuni asked him if it was a good likeness of his master. The boy answered that it was very good, an excellent likeness of his master; and with very sorrowful expression added "I wish I could ask you to paint my portrait." Toyokuni keenly observing the boy's sad look and feeling rather curious what he would do with his portrait if it was done, asked him what he would do with the picture if he did paint it. The boy then told him that he was a native of Yechigo, far away from Yedo, and that he had not been home to see his parents since he left them three years ago; that they had often written him to come home for a visit, but he could not go being so far away, while other boys who were in his shop could go home, their homes being nearer; and then he said, "If you would paint my portrait I could send it on to my home where my dear father and mother could look at it, and how glad they would feel, almost as good as seeing me in person; but I know it is no use for me to have such a wish, for I can never pay you for it." Then he commenced to cry bitterly and was very sad. Toyokuni taking in the situation said to the boy. "Well, well, I can understand how you feel. Now don't cry, for I am going to paint your portrait at once and you are not going to pay for it."

Then he had the boy sit down, and

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painted his portrait, which he gave to the grateful boy with his good wishes to the great joy of the good lad. The very next day the merchant master himself called on Toyokuni and said to him in a somewhat angry tone, "Well master, it is rather hard on me that you have not done my portrait, but did that of my servant boy yesterday." Toyokuni replied in his quiet manner, smilingly, "To tell the plain truth I have not neglected yours at all, but I can not do it; really, to paint a portrait one must know the man's character, disposition etc.; in the first place whether he is a patriot, an affectionate son or a faithful servant, etc. In your boy's case I saw at once his affectionate disposition and I did paint him on the spot, but in your case, pardon my saying so, I can not see any thing in you, and that is the true reason why I have not yet finished your portrait." The merchant left the great master's studio scratchiug his poor head, on his way home.

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THE ABANDONMENT OF CONSULAR JURISDICTION IN JAPAN

By YEIJIRO NAKATSUKA, M. DIP., D.C.L.

Part III

THE IWAKURA EMBASSY AND TERASHIMA

AFTER the restoration, diplomatic efforts for treaty revision were made by the Government. It became the burning question ; it was regarded as the first and foremost task to redeem the national prestige.

Imagine a people in utter ignorance of the outside world making fierce opposition against foreign intercourse. Imagine this people and this prejudice accusing the policy of the Government ; imagine a country full of turbulent nobles and *samurai* availing themselves of the diplomatic confusion of the Government ; imagine that the feudal Government of this country was inefficient to protect the lives and property of foreign residents ; imagine that the policy of this Government and of this country was intolerable to Christianity. Yes, imagine all these things, and then realize that the treaty stipulations made under these circumstances would not be favorable to Japan.

In 1871, the first proposal was made for treaty revision, a year previous to the date specified in the treaties. The next year the Iwakura Embassy visited the United States and European countries with this view. After this fruitless attempt, the internal improvement, the Korean affair, and others, engrossed the attention of the Government.

Terashima, Minister of Foreign Affairs, took up the task in 1878. His proposal was to restore tariff-autonomy, leaving consular jurisdiction untouched. The United States lent a ready ear to these views. In the new treaty signed between the United States and Japan, the United States recognized the exclusive right of Japan to adjust her tariffs and duties on imports. But the provision of the last article said that this convention should take effect when Japan should conclude similar conventions with other treaty powers. Japan did not succeed in obtaining consent of other powers and this revised treaty, of course, became inoperative.

COUNT INOUYE'S EFFORTS

Terashima was succeeded by Inouye. Tremendous efforts were made by him from the year 1882 to 1889. Whenever a proposal for the revision of the treaty was made, the treaty powers, who were willing to negotiate treaties, or who wished to continue the special privileges secured, found objections. So, always it resulted in fruitless efforts.

I ask you to bear with me a little, while I relate to you Inouye's efforts and the conference held for treaty revision. So great was his eagerness

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that he gave up his principle of moderate progress and began to preach the doctrine of radical change; for he thought the material progress of the country was the nearest way to accomplish the task of treaty revision.

In 1886, at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tokyo, a conference was held, by virtue of the following protocol:

"The Government of Japan and the Governments of Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, The Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Norway, the Swiss Confederation, and the United States of America, respectively, recognizing the desirability of arriving at a common understanding with the object of completing the work of the revision of the treaties begun in the preliminary Conference of 1882, have appointed plenipotentiaries to represent them at a new Conference convoked by the Japanese Government for this purpose.*

Inouye was made the president of the Conference, in which the proceedings were in the French and English languages. The important discussions of this Conference were: (1) on the tariff question: (2) on consular jurisdiction. In regard to the latter, the proposal of the Japanese Government in substance was as follows:

1. Confine consular jurisdiction to the treaty limits of seven open ports; all foreigners outside shall be subjected to Japanese jurisdiction.

2. After three years, consular jurisdiction shall be absolutely abolished.

3. For foreigners, the court shall be composed of Japanese and foreign nationality; and this shall remain in force until 1903, and, thereafter the Japanese Government shall assume full jurisdiction.

This proposal met opposition within, because it yielded too much to treaty powers. The fierce opposition of the people and the lack of harmony of the Cabinet compelled Inouye to give up his portfolio.

COUNT OKUMA TOOK UP THE TASK

The new Minister of Foreign Affairs took up the task which was given up in discouragement by his predecessor. With fresh vigor, Okuma took a step further forward than Inouye's policy. On the one hand, he enforced the corollary to consular jurisdiction. His motive was to make foreigners realize the inconvenience arising from the existing treaties. On the other hand, he entered into negotiations for a separate convention. As usual, the United States lent a ready ear and was first to give her consent, which was followed by Germany and Russia. While he pushed on his negotiations with other European Powers, he concluded a treaty with Mexico on equal footing.

The terms upon which he was negotiating with European Powers were not known to the public. When the supposed proposal of terms appeared in the *London Times* in 1889, Japan was divided into two parties, one advocating, the other opposing his policy. The main points of his opponents were: first, against the opening of the interior of the country to foreigners; second, against the organization of mixed courts, as when a suit involved any foreigner, the case was heard in a court in which the

* Hubbard's *The United States in the Far East*, p. 155.

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THE LATE COUNT MUTSU
Le Comte Mutsu (décéder)
Der selige Graf Mutsu

PRINCE IWAKURA
Le Prince Iwakura
Herzog Iwakura

COUNT TERASHIMA
Le Comte Terashima
Graf Terashima

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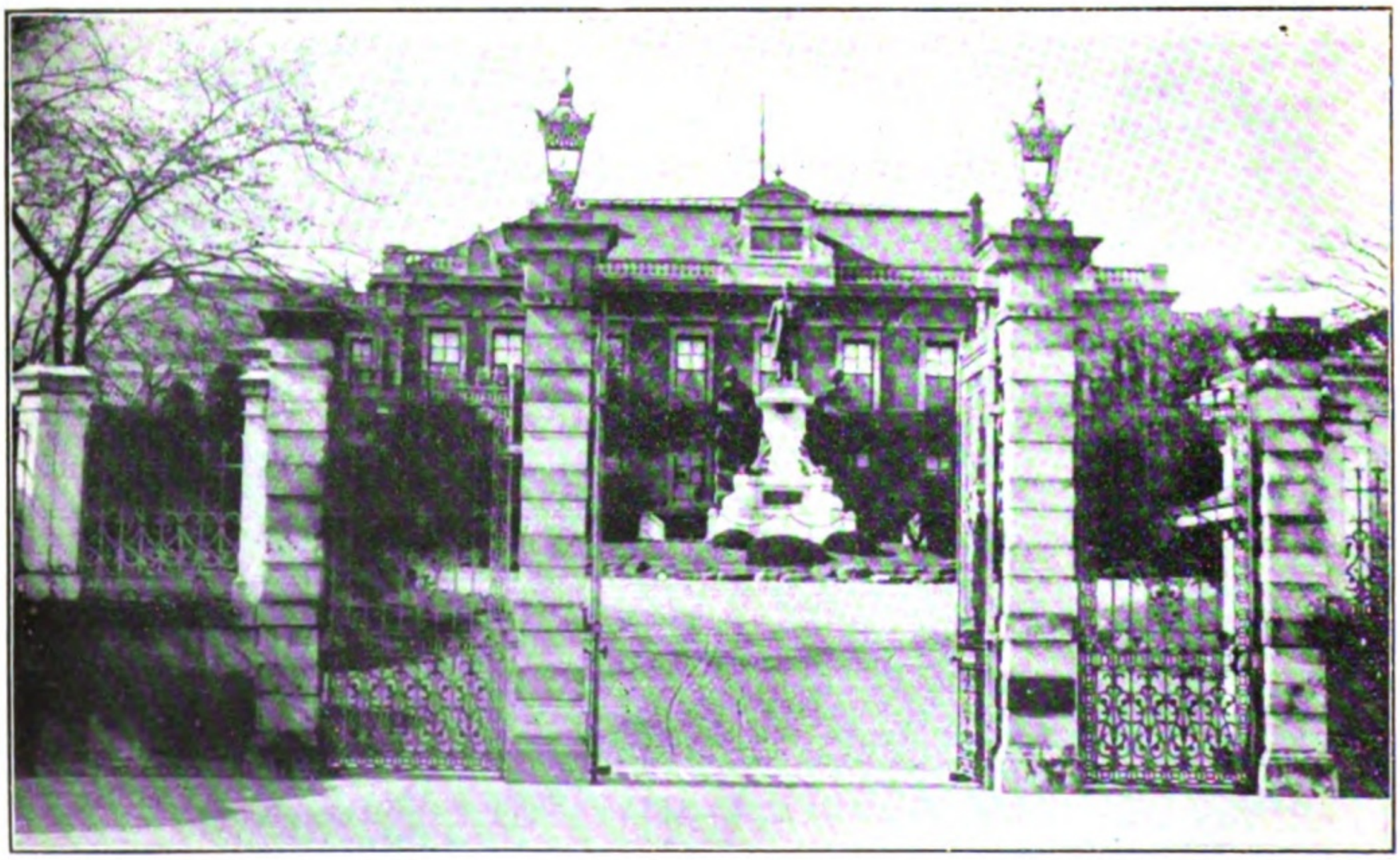
COUNT OKUMA
Le Comte Okuma
Graf Okuma

MARQUIS KOMURA
Le Marquis Komura
Marquis Komura



DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS
Le Département des affaires étranger
Das Ministerium der auswärtigen Angelegenheiten

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majority of judges were of foreign nationality.

In respect to the opening of the interior, the opponents insisted that we were not ready yet for mixed residents, and that some dreadful consequence might follow it. As for foreign judges in Japanese courts, they severely accused Okuma of violating the constitution then promulgated.

Okuma became the victim of a political fanatic. The would-be assasin was but an expression of the feeling of his opponents. With his resignation, treaties negotiated by him were declared to be void. His successors respectively took up the task in vain.

Thus different attempts were made and followed by successive disappointments, and the last successful attempt to revise the treaties was reserved to Count Mutsu.

THE DIPLOMATIC VICTORY OF JAPAN—TREATIES REVISED

The year 1894 in the history of Japan, should be regarded as the day of rebirth of Japan ; because it was marked by two great events. In August, the war with China was formally declared ; not offensive but defensive. It would be unnecessary to dwell in detail on this. The object of the war was to check China's constant interference in Korea, and to maintain the peace of the Far East. Our army not only manifested bravery, but waged a humane war. "The massacre of Port Arthur" was reported and exaggerated by Creelman, the war correspondent of the *New York World*. The world, however, is too wise to be deceived by his pen. After this war, the real Japan came to be reflected to Western eyes ; as a foe, formidable ; as a friend, powerful. Japan like Prussia under Frederick the Great, has raised herself into the front rank of nations.

Another event was a structual result and land mark of diplomacy. After weary negotiation, Japan entered into the possession of full autonomy. On the 26th of August, Lord Kimberly and Viscount Aoki in London ; and on Nov. 22nd 1894, Secretary Gresham and Minister Kurino at Washington, respectively signed the new treaties.

CONSULAR JURISDICTION ABOLISHED

Towsend .Harris wrote in the *Japan Times*, in 1875, on Consular Jurisdiction in Japan : "The gift of the extraterritorial right to the American in Japan, as it is stipulated in the treaty, is the thing which is against my conscience. I am now old and am very sorry that I cannot take off these unjust articles before I die. I hope that in the future others at least will witness the change." On the rock of consular jurisdiction, several cabinets were wrecked ; this vexed problem led to constant internal ferment. To substitute the inadequate institution, many suggestions were proposed, considered and withdrawn. One time, we sent a commissioner to Egypt to investigate the organization of mixed tribunals.

The report was that when the natives and persons of different nationalities became involved, there arose not only endless complexity, but often a total failure of justice.

How Towsend Harris would have rejoiced to see this act of judicious treatment done ! We threw off the yoke. The revised treaties with respective powers provide the abandonment of consular jurisdiction. The eighteenth

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chine, chlorine dissolving apparatus, electrolyser for the production of bleaching liquor and hydro-extractor. In the dip dyeing room there are copper cased cast iron dye-beck, two dyeing jiggers, two special dyeing jiggers, two immedial dyeing jiggers, padding machine, experimental loose wool dyeing machine, experimental cop dyeing machine, yarn washing machine, hydro-extractor and steam drying cylinder; in the printing room there are a set of four double cased copper color pans, wall color and starch filtering machine, laboratory, one-color printing machine, three-color sample printing machine. hot air drying chamber, yarn printing machine, laboratory steaming box, high pressure steaming apparatus, aniline and hydro-sulphite ageing machine, soaping machine and forcing machine. In the finishing room there are gas singeing machine, shearing machine, brushing machine, horizontal drying machine, clip stretching machine, back starching machine, spray dampening machine, friction starching machine, three bowls light friction calender, hydraulic riffle calender, winding machine, pressing and drying machine for silk fabrics, breaking machine, silk yarn stretching and glazing machine, and steaming frame; in the weaving room there are silk warping and beaming machine, silk warp winding machine, silk weft winding machine, light silk loom, dobbie loom, and Jacquard loom. In the testing room of yarns and textile fabrics there are Lambrecht's ploymetre, conditioning oven, serimetre, two single thread testing machines, light cloth testing machine, Hebdon's patent cloth testing machine, testing machine for the wearing quality of cloth, count reel and warp block.

The dyeing industry makes an important figure in the list of Japanese industries and it is widely practised in connection with the weaving industry. Before all the machines were set up in the new building a number of applications were received by those engaged in these investigations. Accordingly these were carried on as far as the equipments of the laboratory allowed.

The Fifth Department serves the electro-chemical industry which has now become the most interesting and important branch of chemical industry, producing annually a large amount of caustic soda, chlorates, nitrates, carbides, calcium cyanamide, phosphorus, aluminium etc. As there is natural water power and raw material in abundance, the development of this new branch is of great importance to Japan. To call attention to this subject and to carry out necessary experiments, the Government decided last year to establish an electro-chemical department as the Fifth Department of the institution. Accordingly, a brick building was set up as a laboratory and a wooden building for an experiment room, employing extra high tension current, a switch board room, an electric furnace room, a transformer room, a storage battery room, an electrolysing room, an electroplating room and a finishing room. Besides the above buildings, there are a store-house and a workshop.

As to the work of this department, we may mention that the experimental preparation of patassium chlorate from the chloride left as a by-product after iodine manufacture from kelp, aluminium from some kinds of clays and chlorine compounds to utilize chlorine, which is produced by electrolytic preparation of caustic soda, have already begun and as far as experiments go the results are very promising.

Japan has at present to make much effort in order to promote her industrial position. The *raison d'etre* of the Industrial Laboratory is to serve the country in this very respect. Manufacturers, especially those who are engaged in the industries connected with the work of this Laboratory, may utilize for their own industries the investigations and experiments of the Industrial Laboratory.

Such a short time has elasped since the establishment of the Laboratory, it can not be said that it has accomplished much, but all the work above mentioned, which is more or less meritorious, shows how the Industrial Laboratory aids in the progress of Japan's industries.

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ASCENT OF MOUNT FUJI

MOUNT Fuji, or *Fuji-no-Yama*, as termed by the native poets, is the grandest and highest mountain in Japan, and is held as the most sacred of all the many holy mountains. It rises alone from an immense plain to the height of 12,390 feet. Though a non-active volcano (its last eruption having occurred in 1707) steam still rises from many fissures on the eastern side of the summit, just below the rim of the crater.

It is nearly always below the freezing point at the summit even in the hottest part of summer, and preparations for the ascent must be attended to with care as to taking extra warm clothing, as well as provisions, to meet the varying circumstances.

There are six distinct routes by which the ascent can be made, two of which, from Suyama and Gotemba, merge into the same trail at something more than half the distance up, making it finally five separate trails.

Travelers in Yokohama or Tokyo invariably take the Tokaido railway to Gotemba, which is the nearest and most accessible starting point; but others, from a desire for variety, take the central railroad from Tokyo to Ozuki, approaching Mount Fuji from the north, or again persons from Kobe, or the western side, take the Tokaido line and leave it either at Iwabuchi on the west side of *Fujikawa* (Fuji River) or at Suzukawa, and from there go to the village of Yoshiwara as a starting place. Ascent may also be made from Hitoana, at the extreme west side, which is more convenient for natives living through the western part, but is seldom used by foreigners, the distance being too great from either railroad.

Those ascending by way of Gotemba, usually plan to reach that station in the evening and to remain at the Fujiya Hotel over night, in order to set out at dawn the next morning, taking the Nakabata path, where horses and coolies are engaged by foreigners, the horses being used for the first two and a half hours' journey that will bring the traveler to Umagaeshi, the stopping place for horses, for it is yet considered, by the masses, to be a sacrilege to allow an animal to tread upon the sacred cinders of Fuji, but we push on a little further to Tarabo, where we are compelled to leave the horses.

For the ascension of Mount Fuji great care should be exercised in choosing reasonable weather conditions, and in going fully prepared for being compelled to remain on the mountain several days, should severe storms come on during the ascent or descent, for in such case, it is most dangerous to make the slightest attempt to proceed, and necessary to seek shelter in the established places for that purpose where one is a grateful prisoner until the storm abates, for both wind and rain are terrific.

On the approach of a storm while ascending it is well to notice whether the wind blows from the base or the top of the mountain; if the former, there need be no fear, though the traveler may be surrounded by cloud and mist, but if the latter, it is advisable to seek shelter as quickly as possible as it presages a heavy storm.

The coolies carry all additional clothing necessary as well as provisions. One coolie to two persons is sufficient, unless weakly persons are in the party, then it is necessary to have a separate man for the weak one. Although Mount Fuji is one of the eaiest mountains of its height to ascend, on account of its gradual rise over a smooth path unobstructed by the difficulties generally besetting ordinary mountain climbing, yet, it is well to remark that persons in a weakly state, or beyond the age of continued strenous exertion should avoid undertaking the journey, though there are many such who make the ascent, much to their regret. In such cases two coolies are generally employed to assist; one with ropes fastened around the waist,

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nexation of Chōsen, serious inundations in various parts of Japan, and the spread of pest throughout Manchuria, which all occurred in the course of 1910, the total revenue and expenditure will each come up to $274,125,157; and the carrying out of the Budgets happily produced good results both financially and from the view point of general economy.

The four per cent. loans which were issued in March, 1910 and subsequently in home and foreign markets for the conversion of national loans amounted to $278,000,000; and the total amount of five per cent. loans which were redeemed with the proceeds of the new loans was $259,000,000. The amount annually saved in interest by these conversions will be $1,800,000.

In August, 1910, the annexation of Chōsen took place; and many plans were made in regard to the new territory, such as the construction and improvement of railways, establishment of harbor accommodation, road construction, cadastral survey, and aid to various industries. It was decided to open special accounts for these undertakings and to make up from the general account in case the revenues on those occounts are insufficient to meet the expenditures. This decision was carried into effect on the 1st October last. The sum thus defrayed out of the general account during the six months from October till the following March was $1,400,000; but as a considerable portion of the sum allowed by the Budget for the expenses of the late Residency-General was set free, the annexation did not entail a marked increase in the expenditure for the past financial year.

In August, 1910, serious inundations causing widespread sufferings took place in Tokyo and several other prefectures; and grants in aid of prefectural engineering works were made out of the national treasury. The amount paid out as grants unprovided for in the Budget was $2,035,000 and that allowed by a supplementary budget was $1,540,000, making a total of $3,580,000.

Upon comparing the actual results of the revenue for the financial year 1909–10 with the estimates, we find that in the ordinary section, as regards the taxes and duties, while there was a falling off in the receipts from the sugar excise, textiles consumption tax, and customs duties, there was an increased yield from the income, business, and *saké* taxes, resulting in a net increase of $1,435,000, and there was an increase of $3,980,000 in stamp-receipts and $890,000 in receipts from Government undertakings and State property, making the total increase in the ordinary section $6,390,000. In the extraordinary section, as the amount brought over from the preceding financial year exceeded the estimates by $70,445,000, the excess in the whole section over the Budget estimates amounted to $72,135,000. In short, the total revenue was $33,877,000, being an excess of $73,525,000 over the Budget estimates which had been put at $260,240,000.

Although it is yet too early too obtain a definite account of the actual revenue for the financial year 1910–11, it is calculated according to the present estimate that there will be an increase, as regards the taxes and duties, in the receipts from the sugar excise, tax on bourses, and traveling and succession taxes; but as exemptions from land-tax and delay allowed in payment of the tax on account of the inundations in

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various parts of the country during the year in question involved heavy losses to the treasury, and the customs receipts were less than had been anticipated, a net deficit in the revenue from taxes is expected to be about $2,500,000. Further, although an excess over the Budget estimates of $950,000 in stamp receipts and of $665,000 in the yield from Government undertakings and State property is anticipated, a decrease is expected in the miscellaneous receipts, so that there will probably be a net decrease in the ordinary revenue of $1,195,000. In the extraordinary section, as the amount brought over from the preceding financial year is expected to be $58,890,000 in excess of the Budget estimates, the total increase will probably be $59,750,000. The total ordinary and extraordinary revenue will, it is accordingly believed, exceed the Budget estimates by $58,590,000.

The condition of the economic world in 1910 may be briefly described by stating that through an increase in the national savings and the redemption of national loans, the capital in the market became abundant and both commerce and industry made steady progress.

The arrangements made by the Government since 1908 in regard to the national finance and debt have proved very effective and, together with the general condition of the economic world at the end of 1909, led at the beginning of the following year to a still greater abundance of capital in the financial world and brought on a downward tendency in the rate of interest. The Government took advantage of this occasion to commence the conversion into four per cent. loans of those five per cent. public loans whose period for remaining unredeemed had expired. Thereupon, anticipations made by the market of the future course of monetary circulation brought interest of all kinds to an almost unprecedentedly low rate, and the stock market which had long lain inert showed some signs of activity, and even upon the coming of the season when there is usually a general demand for capital, hardly any change was perceptible in the slack circulation of money.

Meanwhile, the Government's plan for the conversion and redemption of its loans made gradual progress; and as sources of revenue for the redemption, four per cent. loans were issued at home and similar loans in French money and in sterling were raised abroad, and with the proceeds of these loans and the sinking fund, various five per cent. loans and exchequer bonds were redeemed to the value of $261,650,000 (of which $124,900,000 was redeemed in cash and $136,750,000 was exchanged for the low-interest loan bonds). Consequently, although very few attempts were made by public corporations or private companies to import foreign capital, there was in the course of last year an increase of $18,820,000 in the postal savings and of $55,335,000 in the deposits at the banks in various important places, and on the contrary the loans advanced by the banks showed an increase of only $42,850,000, so that the circulation of money became still more slack and, notwithstanding a slight briskness at the end of the year, the low rate of interest was always maintained.

In these circumstances, as with this abundance of capital in the financial world, many efforts were made for its investment, the debentures issued by banks and companies were generally

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welcomed as objects of investment ranking next to the national loans in reliability. The issues of these debentures always produced good results, and those issued during the year amounted altogether to $43,035,000. As the business world was thus given a suitable stimulus by the supply of cheap capital, together with the rise in the price of silver, annexation of Chōsen, reduction of taxes, and revision of the customs tariff, the way was opened for recovery from the stagnation of trade. The traffic on the Imperial Railways increased rapidly, aud their earnings, the largest on record, reached the total of $42,375,000. Moreover, although the capital for new enterprises during the year amounted to $243,500,000, the attitude of business men remained calm; and it was most satisfactory to note that speculative enterprises did not make their appearance in succession as was the case immediately after the late war.

The results of foreign trade are worthy of notice. The exports amounted to $229,000,000 and the imports to $232,000,000, making the total volume of trade $461,000,000. Although this sum appears slightly less than the figures for 1907, it should be noted that the trade with Chōsen during the last four months of the year is not included in the above figures for 1910. If the volume of the trade with Chōsen during the corresponding months of 1907 were deducted from the figures for that year, the amounts for last year would be the highest on record. Although this great increase cannot be attributed solely to any one or two causes, still one of the principal causes of the increase in exports would appear to be the fact that the producers of raw silk, cotton yarn, and other articles have of late been able to reduce the cost of production by the use of cheap capital and improved methods of production and to export the manufactured articles at low prices; and as the increase in imports is mainly due to the increased importation of raw materials like raw cotton and wool, the results of the foreign trade may be considered to be satisfactory notwithstanding the excess of imports over exports amounting to $3,000,000.

Thus the market had from the spring of last year a large supply of capital generally from the redemption of a large amount of national loans and increase in savings; and this led to the lowering of the rate of interest and to the extension of enterprise. Moreover, our foreign trade has made suitable progress; and it is most satisfactory to see that our economic capacity is yearly expanding and the nation is by prudence and thrift husbanding its resources.

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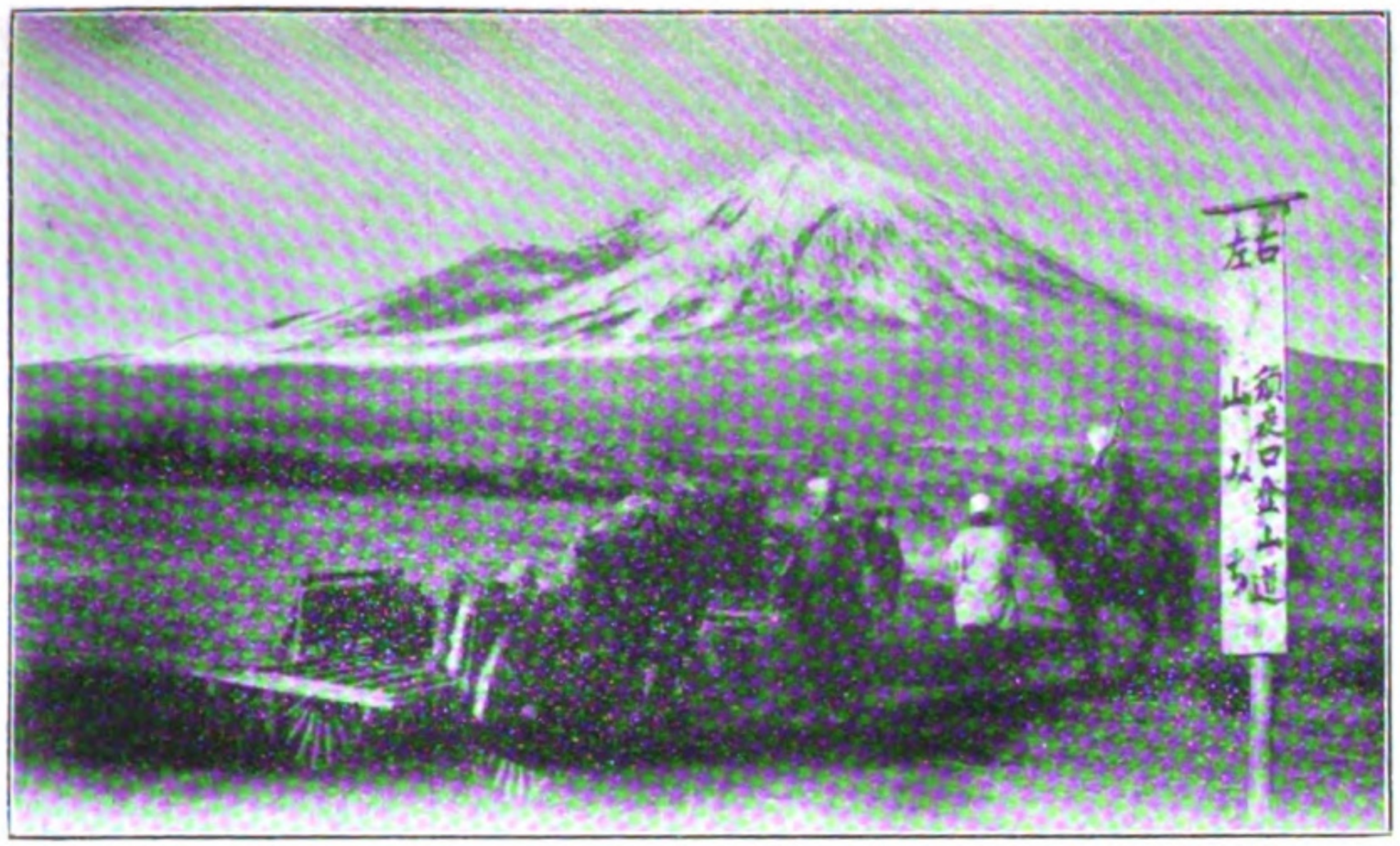
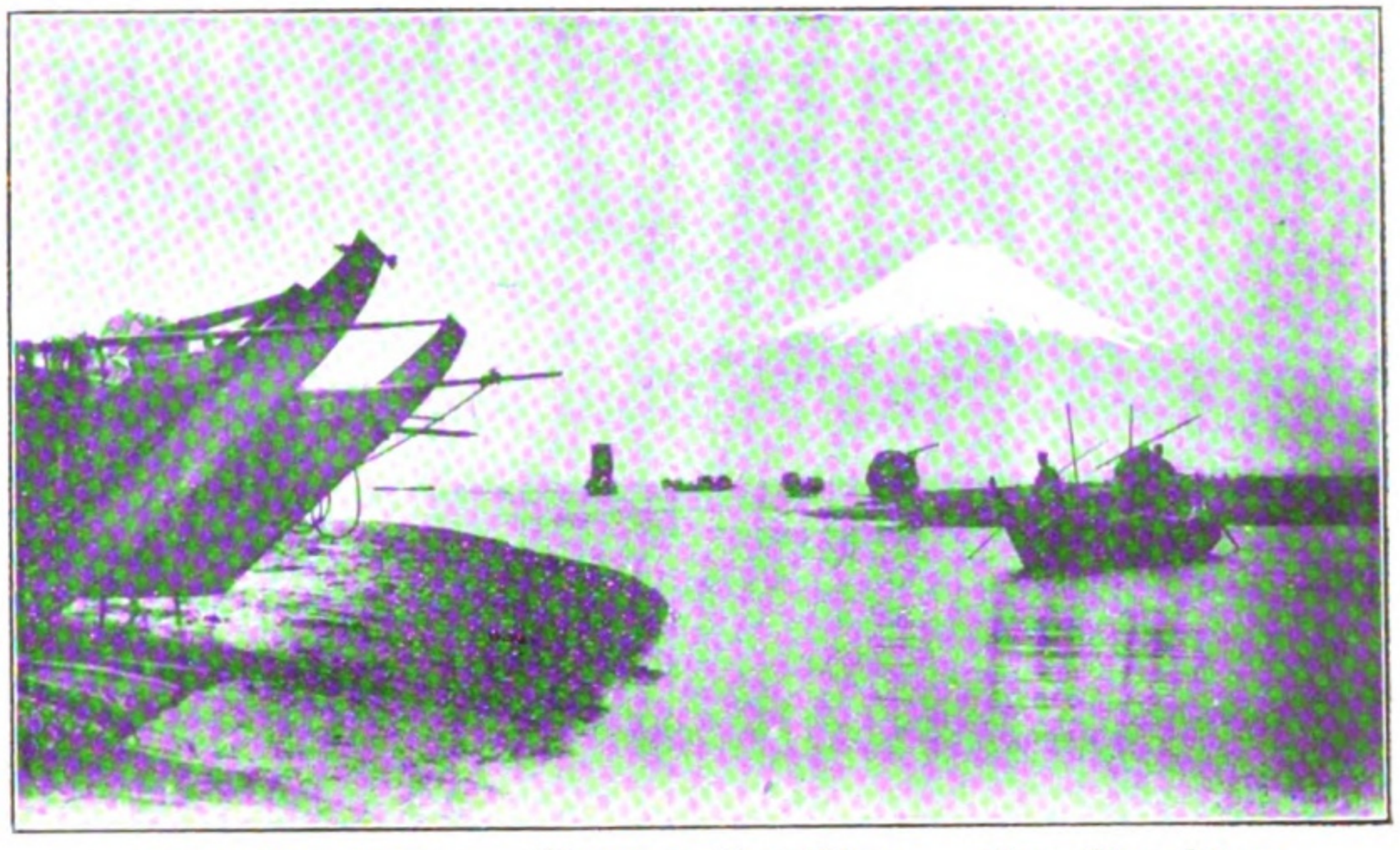


FROM SUBASHIRI. *Devant Subashiri. Aus Subashiri*

FROM ŌYAGI. *Devant Oyagi. Aus Oyagi*

FROM KAWAGUCHI. *Devant Kawaguchi. . Aus Kawaguchi*



FROM ENOSHIMA. *Devant Enoshima. Aus Enoshima*

FAMOUS VIEWS OF MT. FUJI. *LES VUES FAMOUS DE MONT FUJI. DIE BERÜHMTE ANSICHTEN VON DER BERG FUJI*

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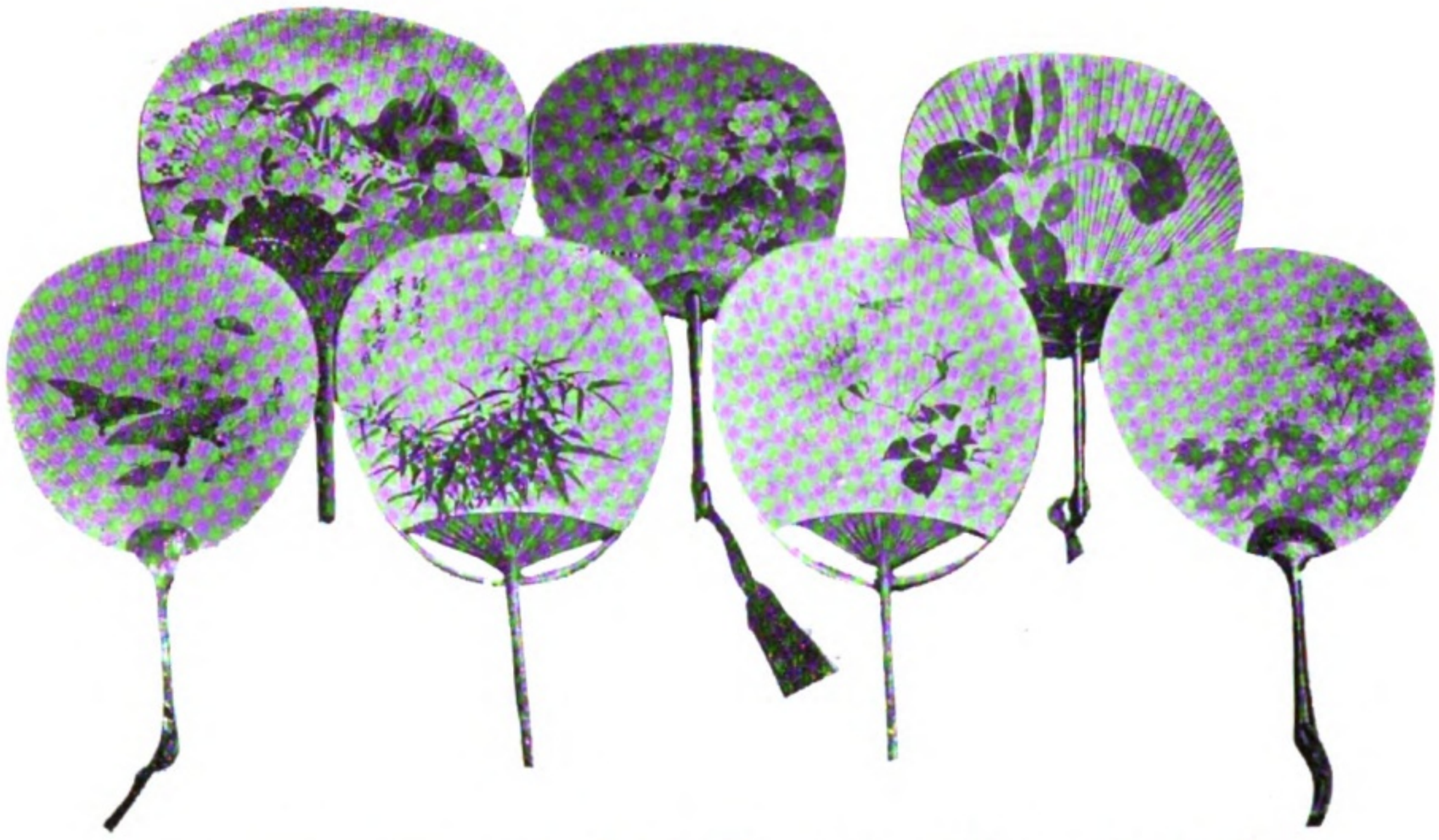
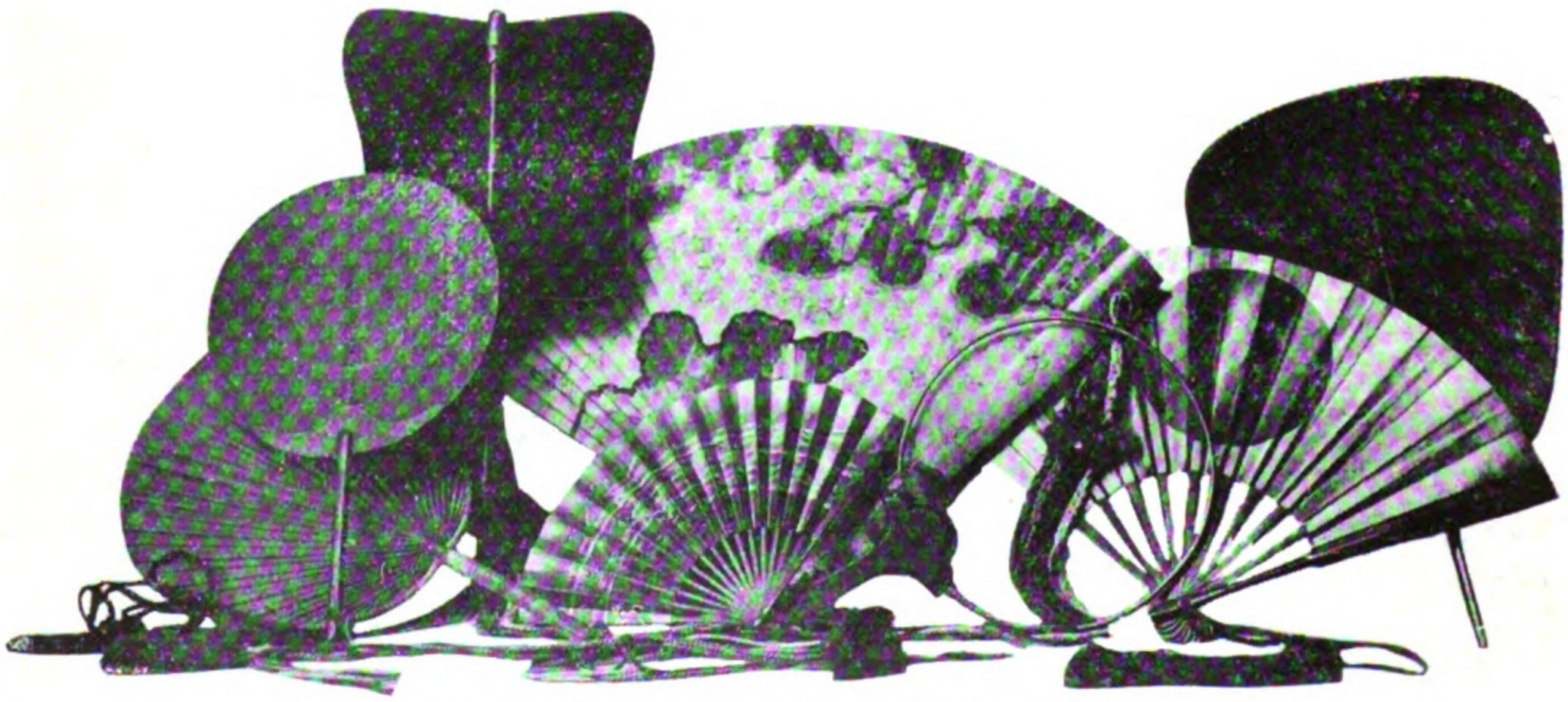


ROUND FANS. *Des éventails rond.* *Die runde Fücher*

FOLDING FANS. *Des éventails qui se replie sur lui-même.* *Die gefaltete Fächer*



OLD OFFICIAL AND COURT FANS (IMPERIAL MUSEUM)
Vieil éventails official et du Cour (Musée Imperial)
Die ceremoniöse und offizielle Fächer (Das kaiserliche Museum)

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FANS

THE fan is one of few ancient inventions not introduced into Japan from a foreign country, having been designed by Empress Jingo (192-210 A D.), who is said to have found the suggestion in a bat's wing. It was first made of thirty-nine thin stays of *hinoki* wood, fastened with silk cord, the long ends of which furnished a decorative feature; the name, *hi-ogi*, meaning 'wood folding fan.'

Such fans soon became necessary accessories for Court ladies, being used on all ceremonial occasions, as much to shield their faces while in the presence of gentlemen, as for the more usual purpose of fanning.

In later periods paper fans were made after the same fashion, the number of stays being, of course, greatly reduced, and the art of painting was employed for the embellishment of both kinds. Just when these came into use is not known, but the custom of carrying a fan had already been adopted by nobles and officials of high rank, who used it in giving orders as they had formerly used the *shaku*, or baton, in the presence of the emperor or on ceremonial occasions.

Two *hi-ogi* said to have been among the personal effects of Emperor Antoku (1181) and a paper folding fan bearing Chinese characters, that belonged to Emperor Takakura (1169) are preserved at Itsukushima shrine (Miyajima); also an *ogi* with colored pictures, which was presented by a member of the Taira family. At Kumano shrine, ten colored fans in a lacquered box are held as national treasures, and similar ones are among the relics of Asuka, all the above being deemed the oldest fans extant in Japan.

Paper *ogi* were made with bamboo stays numbering five, seven, or ten; those with five long since went out of fashion, thirteen now being generally used. In selecting a fan the Japanese man or woman notes very carefully, according to choice, whether the outside stays are the width of the fold in the paper, or a narrow strip down its center; whether they are beveled or cut square at the ends, and only a certain prescribed size may be used by each, and another specified size is made for children, for no one must be without this important article, nor fail to learn the many significances attached to it in one way or another.

A man's fan is ten and a half to eleven inches in length; a woman's about seven and three quarters, and a child's not more that six, sometimes shorter. All may be in colors and with decoration, there being favorite designs, chief among which is a large sun upon a plain ground, the colors being red and gold, used interchangeably; but plain white ones are preferred by many who wish to have some friend write a poem or sketch a flower or lovely bamboo thereon.

Ogi play an important part in both *Nō* dancing and singing. A rather large one, with horizontal stripes of varying widths in silver and gold, is used by the dancers, and a smaller one of the same description by the singers.

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a similarly striped fan was used by ladies of the *Shogun's* Court. All are illustrated.

Another particular kind of folding fan called *suehiro* or *chukei*, is used by priests; its outer stays are curved outward so as to cause the folds to remain extended like a half open accordian. These were formerly used by Court nobles, and are also attached to presents sent to a groom by the bride's parents. *Ogi* are used as congratulatory presents for all occasions, especially marriages, and these folding fans made of silk ganze and exquisitely embroidered or daintily painted, and with carved sandal wood or ivory stays are exported in large numbers, but are not used by Japanese.

Round open fans are called *uchiwa*, and are of various kinds and uses. Highest among them is the gourd-shaped one of black lacquered wood with gold ornament, and in rare cases, even jewelled; this is the *gumbai*, or war fan used by military officers in giving commands. Interesting examples of these are in the Imperial Museums.

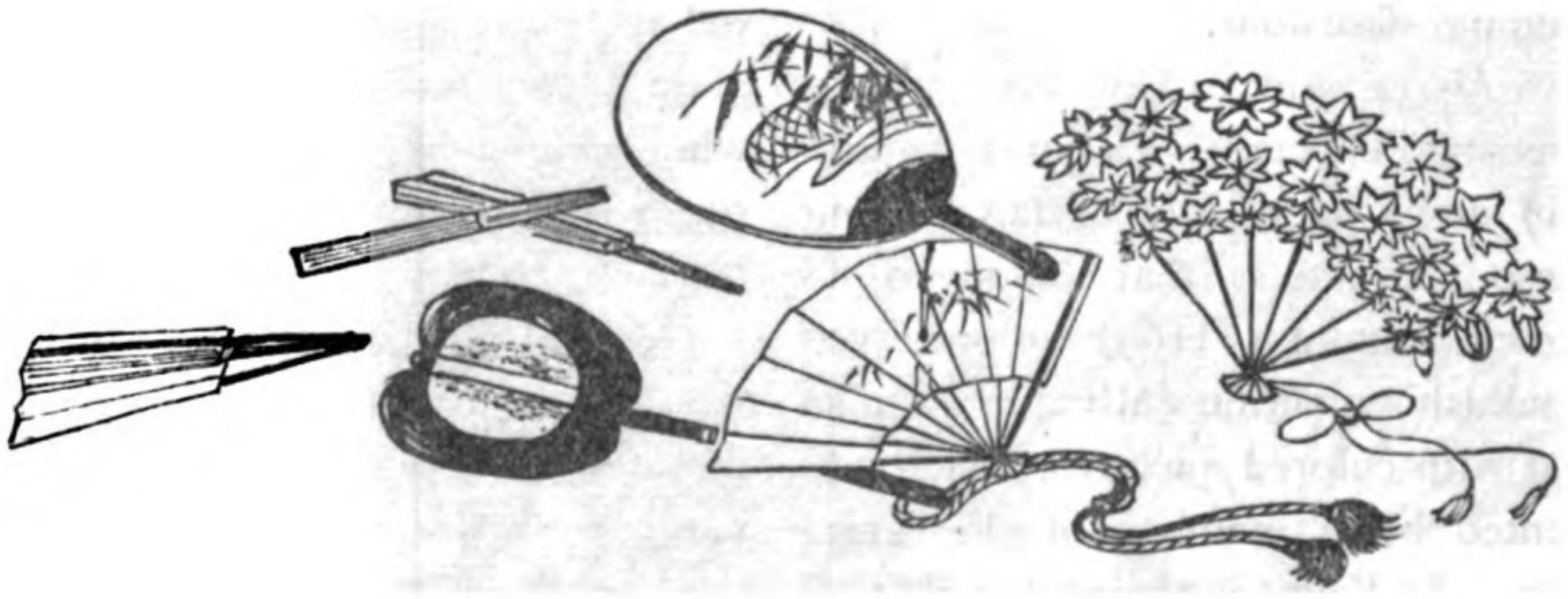
The *uchiwa*, was introduced from China. The ordinary one has a frame of bamboo covered with paper, but others are made of a thin silk stretched tightly over a wire rim (*kinu uchiwa*), feathers are sometimes used (*ha uchiwa*), and the paper ones are coated with the juice of green persimmons (*shibu uchiwa*), or lacquer, (*midzu-uchiwa*).

The paper ones are used largely by Japanese tradesmen for advertising, and hundreds of thousands are exported to foreign countries for the same purpose. The silk ones are also largely exported and sold for their decorative effect; they were not made until the early nineteenth century. *Ha uchiwa* are seldom seen. *Shibu uchiwa* are used by kitchen-maids to fan their charcoal fires. *Midzu uchiwa* are so called because they are sprinkled with water (*midzu*) while being used, to make the air cooler.

Natsukawa, Gifu and Ogi (names of places) are each known for a special kind of round fans. Those made at the first mentioned place are considered the very finest, some of which cost as much as two or three dollars, while common *uchiwa* are sold for a few cents each.

The manufacture of fans forms quite an industry in Tokyo, Kyoto and other cities. Skilled workmen make a speciality of splitting the bamboo for the frames of *uchiwa*, and artists of no mean talent are employed in decorating the fans. Among the old painters whose fan designs were such favorites, were Hishikawa Moronobu, Torii Kyonobu, Kitagawa Utamaro, Ichiyosai Toyokuni and Gototei Kunisada, and it may well be said that they were an important factor in popularizing the fan.

The center of the *uchiwa* industry in Tokyo, is Nihonbashi, where there are six large wholesale firms producing two million fans annually.



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A JAPANESE LOVER

The exquisitely illusive idealization of the highest type of Japanese poetry is well illustrated in the following verse, expressive of the undying devotion of a lover. To appreciate adequately the inimitable force and beauty of a sentiment suggested in such graceful and delicate ingenuity of language, one has to bear in mind that the Japanese *andon*, or night light, is often fed by oil that once was the life of flower seeds. Now that the flower has faded into flame, fatal even to touch, the moth comes back with the old time affection he had for the blossom, and plunges into the flower-fire as a lover ready to face even death for what he loves: for the sweet flower of love becomes a flame in Japan as frequently and and as fatally as elsewhere.

Kiyete yuku:
Abura no moto wa
Natane nari;
Cho wa kogarete
Ai ni kuru,
Mukashi najimi no
Fukai naka
Shinuru kakugo de
Kitawai na.

Burn, O candle of love,
Born of the seed of flowers!
As, to the fatal flower fire,
The butterfly longingly cometh,
With the old time affection
Bestowed on the blossom,
Full ready to die,
So come I to thee, Love!

Translation by Dr. J. Ingram Bryan

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EDUCATION IN KOREA

WITH regard to educational reforms in Korea since 1906, modern common schools, in accordance with the advice of the Resident General, were established by the Government in important places throughout the country as models ; and a normal school, a high school and a foreign language school, poorly conducted, were re-organized after a better system. The second stage of the educational reforms was commenced in 1908 with the supervision and control of numerous private schools and of text books of a seditious nature indiscriminately used by private schools. In order to encourage female education, a girls' high school was established by the Government to serve as a model, and a system of separate classes for girls was also provided in common schools without radically introducing co-education which is contrary to popular prejudices. In 1909, reform measures entered the third stage, being directed towards encouraging and stimulating industrial and technical ideas in order to meet the existing condition of the country. This was effected by promulgating Regulations concerning industrial schools and by increasing the curriculum of agriculture, commerce and industry in the normal school, high school and common schools.

Regulations concerning common schools and their detailed rules were modified in April, 1909. Thenceforth the schools were authorized to collect a tuition fee of the lowest amount ; the fixed number of students in a class was increased from 50 to 60, and the supervision of text-books was strictly enforced. Lessons concerning industry in the supplementary course of common schools were also made compulsory, and lessons relating to agriculture and commerce might be added to the curriculums according to local conditions. With the encouragement of industrial education in the common schools, graduates of the Industrial Training School and the Agricultural and Dendrological School were distributed among them as instructors.

The public common schools established directly by the Educational Department or by Provincial Governments are gradually obtaining better results as model schools for the country. People appreciating the work done by these schools, the entrance of students is increasing year by year. But the financial sources being limited, no public school was established in 1909, except one in Fusan. However, the Government commenced to appoint private schools, selecting them from among those located in places convenient for communications and maintaining proper organization and equipment according to the provisions of the Regulations concerning common schools. Thus 31 schools were appointed, to each of which a competent Japanese teacher and a Korean instructor holding a common school teacher's certificate are attached ; and these schools are expected to serve as models like the public common schools.

As to female education, since the establishment of separate classes exclusively for girls in the principal com-

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and the soil between the ridges is levelled; the second tillage is practised after the mulberries have been trimmed in the summer season, and the earth is drawn to the stocks by deep plowing; the third is performed at the end of autumn, the whole farm is deeply cultivated and the earth on the foot of the plant is dug out and removed to the middle of a ridge.

Various fertilizers are applied to mulberry farms, but quickly acting manures are usually avoided. Compost is the chief manure for the plants. Although the qualities may be varied according to the fertility of the soil and the yield of the crop, some five to six hundred *kwan** are applied per *tan* for producing some five hundred *kwan* of leaves per *tan*.

At the first tillage, half of the total amount of manure is given in a trench opened between the ridges, and the rest is applied at the second tillage in a similar manner.

On account of the fact that mulberries may often commence to decay from a wound on a cut surface, caused by unskilful cutting, or sometimes, owing to the improper position of the cut, the growth of the new shoots may be injured, the branches are cut somewhat higher when harvested, and then the remaining parts are cut off from the stock within one week after having been cropped; the cut surface is smoothed and levelled as far as possible. This operation is called *kabu-naoshi* (repairing the stock). Then observing the growth of the shoots, the bad ones are cut off. The latter operation is called *sei-shi* (pruning).

Before the third tillage, the branches are bound together, partly in order to facilitate tilling, and partly in order to keep them from being broken by the weight of the snow in winter. The ties are unbound on budding in the next spring.

The origin of the mulberry disease called dwarf-trouble is unknown, but it seems that in 1868, a man named Izaemon Shimoda discovered the disease in the vicinity of Ōme-machi, Nishitama-gun, Tokyo prefecture. However, it was only during 1881—82 that the attention of people was drawn to the disease. Since that time it spread gradually and the number of affected mulberries was increasing year after year according to the progress of the sericultural industry and the increase of mulberry farms, until the greater part of the mulberries in the whole country were attacked by the disease. The Department of Agriculture and Commerce established a department in the Tokyo Sericultural Institute, in 1896, for the special purpose of investigating the disease, and several experts were appointed to carry out the researches. Thus the cause, methods of prevention and cure of the disease have been investigated and studied.

Generally the symptoms are found on three diferent parts, namely, on the top, on the middle or lower part, and on various parts of the branches, but the first case is the most common.

The disease affecting the tree more violently, the leaves are reduced gradually in size, though their number increases and their color becomes a pale green. The twigs increase remarkably in number, but each one becomes slender and weak. At the last period, when the entire system has been affected by the disease, the leaves become smaller and smaller, and their number continues to increase; the branches become thinner and thinner, and at the same time produce fine twigs to such an extent that the whole tree appears in the shape of a broom. The leaves fade at last, turning yellow. The diseased tree produces few root-fibres, and the fine rootlets branched from the secondary root-fibre are greatly reduced in number.

Mulberries planted by the *negari-jitate* method are most liable to be attacked by the disease, while those planted by the *kyoboku-jitate* method are rarely attacked by the disease. But mulberries, even planted by the former method are more seldom affected by the disease, when cut early, than those which are cropped late.

Excessive manuring, especially when great quantities of quickly acting ma-

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* *kwan*=3.75 kilograms.

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nures are given, causes the disease to a great extent. It is found in many fertile farms, but seldom in a sterile one. The plants are more or less affected by the disease according to the varieties of the mulberries planted, and the disease is generally widespread in a year following a good crop. Many mulberries, several years after planting, are attacked by the disease.

The disease is caused by a physiological disorder due to successive plucking or cutting of the leaves or of the stock, and the causes are theoretically explained as follows.

The plant feeds itself chiefly on the reserve materials during the first period of its growth, but it takes nutrients from the soil and air, and assimilates them as the various organs gradually develop. Therefore, during the period from the budding of the plant to its most vigorous growth, the reserve materials are consumed step by step; when the activity of the plant is approaching an end, the products in the leaves are transferred to the bark of both branches and roots and reserved for the next budding. The quantities of nutrients which have been taken from the reserve materials during the period of growth, are different according to the variety of the plant.

Observations in mulberry-root-decaying were made with the following results.

Although the disease had not yet caused great damage to the mulberries, once attacking the plants, it infected the neighboring ones, thus spreading and causing most serious effects.

Mulberries attacked by the disease faded early in autumn, many of the roots decayed, and white mycelliums and root-like-mycellium-bundles were found on the surface of the wood beneath the root-bark.

Many mushrooms were produced, assembling in large numbers on the root-stocks of the diseased mulberries; these mushrooms are called *kuwa-take* and may be gathered for food.

The disease was caused by the parasitic growth of a kind of fungus *agraicus melleus vahl.* The white mycelliums and root-like-mycellium-bundle were nutritive organs of the fungus, and the mushrooms which came forth at the close of the autumn were the pilerses of the fungus; the color was golden brown; the diameter of the cap was some one to three inches in length; several were produced in a group. The basidium had a club-form on which four basidia were attached. The spores which were born by the sterigma were elliptic; the long diameter was 7–9 μ, and the short one 4–6 μ.

Mulberries affected with bacteria-disease showed black spots on the bark, which cracked when more severely attacked. All new branches and leaves of the diseased mulberries bore dark brown spots on their surfaces, but no difference was found in their roots. The disease was known to be caused by a parasitic microbe called the *bacillus cubonianus.*

The *apriona rugicollis chev.* is one of the most formidably injurious insects, which lives on mulberries in every district of our country. The larva conceals itself in the trunk of the mulberries and injures the wood so much, that in extreme cases, the plant is killed; the *imago* gnaws the branches for laying its eggs or sometimes eats the bark, causing the plant to die. They appear in the beginning of July in the vicinity of Tokyo, and live from one or two to several weeks. During this period the insects gnaw a hoof-shaped cavity in the branches in which they deposit over a hundred eggs. The latter are usually laid when it is quiet, rarely in the full blaze of day light. The eggs hatch within two weeks in summer, while those deposited in the autumn, remain as they are until the next spring. The insect passes two years in the larval stage, and then changes into a pupa in the spring, when the *imago* comes forth after several weeks pupation.

The eggs have a parasitic fly which belongs to the genus *tetrasticus* and greatly prevents the propagation of the insect.

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DWARF MULBERRIES. *Les arbres nain de mûre.* *Die verkürzene Maulbeerä:me*

TREE MULBERRIES. *Les arbres de murier.* *Die Maulbeerbäume*

GATHERING MULBERRY LEAVES. *La cueillette des feuillage de mûre*
Die zusammenbringende Maulbeerbaumblätter

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The Japanese Language School at Pyeng-yang being converted into a high school in March, 1909, became the second high school in Korea, the other one being in Seoul. The specified period of graduation in the Seoul High School is four years. This school gives optional lessons in English and commerce in addition to the regular curriculum of elementary education; while the specified period of graduation in the Pyeng-yang High School is three years and lessons in English and agriculture are optional. Applicants for entrance into high schools recently increasing with the increase of graduates from common schools, the high schools have brighter prospects; for example, the Seoul High School received 194 applicants and the Pying-yang High School, 209 applicants, of whom 72 passed the entrance examination. The former had 22 thelatter 13 graduates in March, 1909.

The Regulations for girls' high schools also were revised in 1909. Lessons in sewing in the main and preparatory courses, hitherto optional, were made compulsory, while lessons in making artificial flowers were made optional. The Seoul Girls' High School is the only one maintained by the Government. Although the school was not opened until July, 1908, the students are on the increase owing to the encouragement of female education. Observing that early marriage exists in Korea, the school admits even the entrance of married girls as a temporary measure.

Regulations concerning the Foreign Language School were modified again in 1909, in the sense that an applicant for entrance to the school must be a graduate of a common school aged 12 years or upwards, or must have the same qualifications as a common school graduate. The Japanese Language School in Pyeng-yang was converted into a high school in April, 1908, while a similar school in Chemulpo was reorganized into an industrial school in May. As stated in the last Annual Report, five foreign language schools in Seoul were amalgamated into one foreign language school, in 1908, and divided into five sections, giving instruction in Japanese, English, French, German and Chinese, respectively. At the end of December, 1909, there were 443 students. Of these, 228 were in the Japanese section, 124 in the English section, 33 in the Chinese section, 16 in the German section, and 8 in the French section in addition to 34 in the Japanese short-term course. When the entrance examination was held in March, 1909, there were 1,130 applicants, of whom 307 passed the examination.

The Government first established the Industrial Training School at Seoul and the Agricultural and Dendrological School attached to the Model Farm in Suwon to serve as models in improving agriculture and industry in Korea. In order to further encourage industrial education at large, the Regulations concerning industrial schools were promulgated by Imperial Edict, industrial schools being thereby classified into four kinds—agricultural, commercial, technical and supplementary industrial. A school of any of these kinds may be established by the central Government, local government, other public association, or by private individuals or associations. However, the approval of the Minister of Education must be obtained for establishing or abolishing a school maintained by others than the central

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THE INDUSTRIAL LABORATORY

THE industrial laboratory, consisting of four departments, is under the control of the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce and deals with analysis, examination, and consultation. It has one director, eleven experts, twenty-two assistant experts, and four secretaries.

The laboratory of the First Department is in a solid brick building occupying 1290 square meters and divided into five chemical analysis rooms; for gravimetic and volumetic analysis, electochemical analysis, combustion and assay; two balance rooms and library; the rooms for director and secretaries are also included in this building. Each working room is equipped with suitable desks and all necessary apparatus. The electro-analysis room contains a table having four working places for carrying out electro-analysis with low potential. The conductors carrying about 5.6 to 12.5 volts and 25 to 150 volt currents from the fifth department run to the switch board. The corresponding current strength is respectively 100 and 20 amperes. The lower potential is employed for electro-analysis and the higher one to drive motors, i.e. to rotate the electrodes. The switch board containing measuring instruments, rheostats and switches was bought from Ludwig H. Zeller, Leipzig. In the library are about 900 books in English, 400 in German, and 200 in Japanese chiefly on chemistry and chemical industry, together with forty-three journals on various subjects, systematically arranged. In connection with the laboratory there are, hydrogen sulphide room, powdering room for preparing samples, and store room for chemical apparatus and chemicals, the space amounting to 409 square meters.

Since the opening of the laboratory for the public in July, 1893, the number of applications chiefly of minerals, ores, petroleum, coals, cokes, metallurgical products, raw materials for manufacture, manufactured products etc., has increased year by year, the results of which have, no doubt, influenced directly or indirectly the progress of the chemical industry.

The laboratory of the Second Department is of brick with a wooden frame, and covers 380 square meters and is divided into rooms for making investigation connected with the lacquered ware industry, rooms for oils, wax, etc., two for paper industry, dark room, balance room, and lecture room. Besides the laboratory, there is a special room connected with a store house, with suitable machinery and apparatus for lacquered ware manufacture. In this room, lacquered ware samples are made by new and improved methods as the result of scientific investigations. In the paper testing room there are the following testing apparatus: micrometer gauge for measuring the thickness of paper, Reimann's ash balance, Rehse's and Wendler's paper testing apparatus, Kirchner's apparatus for testing resistance for folding, Schopper's apparatus for testing resistance for crumpling,

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Schluttig and Neumann's apparatus for sizing qualities of paper, Dr. Klemm's apparatus for testing the absorbency of paper and for the measurement of the transparancy of paper, and microscope. The technical experiment room is provided with the following experimental apparatus for investigation of paper-making; autoclave with lead lining of 8 liters capacity and workable under 20 atmospheric pressure, revolving spherical digester, the diameter of which is 2 feet 3 inches and can be worked under pressure of 80 lbs. per square inch, breaking and washing engine of 40 liters capacity, vats and molds for paper-making by hand, screw press, drying apparatus, plate glazing calender, etc.

The sphere of work of the department is wide, but in the present industrial condition of Japan the greatest importance should be attached to the technical experiments and investigations connected with the manufacture of lacquered wares, oils, wax and papers of various kinds. Accordingly, several experiments and investigations have been made on these subjects, the results of which have been published in Japanese and sent to those persons who might be interested in the subject.

The scope of the Third Department includes not only keramic, but glass, enamel and cement industries, and the work is partly practical manufacture. Accordingly, a building of 3,300 square meters is divided into crushing and pulverizing room, washing room, grinding and preparing room, machine wheel room, special machine wheel room, molding and casting room, special machine room, decorating room, sample room, experiment laboratory, and keramic building materials and cement testing laboratory. Besides the above building there are a kiln house of 1,100 square meters and a store house of 1,600 square meters for keeping fuel, raw materials, manufactured articles, etc. In the crushing and pulverizing room there are a disintegrator, two ball mills, a crushing mill with stone base and stone edge runner, and a simple roller mill. In the washing room there are a horizontal clay blunger, vertical clay blunger, sand separator and decanting tanks. In the grinding and preparing room are installed an Alsing's cylinder, pot mill, vertical mixing blunger, slip tank with blunger, a slip sieve membrane pump, filter press and kneading machine. In the machine wheel room are arranged a machine wheel, Boulton's plate-making machine, Faure's machine wheel, cup-making machine and Boulton's patent throwing wheel. In the special machine wheel room are a wheel for forming oval pieces, automatic machine for chambers, wash basins and large work, turning lathe, and machine wheel for plaster molds. In the special machine room are installed the hydraulic tile press, vertical pug mill, segger making machine, wad pug mill, squeezing box, lever press for stilts, spurs, thimbles, stoppers and similar articles, also a lever press for production of soft material between plaster molds, rolling machine for flat pieces, scouring or grinding disc, Böhme's grinding machine and Tzschabran's dry lever press for electric insulators. In the decorating room is a printing press, copper plate printing press, lithographic printing machine, lining or banding hand wheel aerograph. In the experiment laboratory are Schoene's levigating apparatus, chulz's levigating apparatus, Segar's

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volumenometer, Ludwig's volumenometer, and testing apparatus for tensile strength of clay. In the cement testing laboratory are to be found an inclined plane apparatus for determining liter weight of Portland cement, Böhme's apparatus for the same, Schumann's volumenometer for determining specific gravity, Erdmenger and Mann's volumenometer for the same, normal sieves for determining the degree of fineness of cement, normal sieves for determining the degree of fineness of quartz sand to be used for cement testing, Vicat's needle apparatus for testing the time of setting and normal consistency of cement, automatic apparatus for the same, Bauschinger's caliper apparatus for determining the stability in volume of cement, Klebe's apparatus for the same, Prüssig's press for making cakes of cement, air and water both for accelerated tests, Böhme's hammer apparatus for making briquettes or blocks of cement to be tested for their tensile or compression strength, the complete set for molding briquettes to be tested for tensile strength, the complete set for molding blocks to be tested for compression strength, Michaelis' apparatus for taking the briquettes to be tested for tensile strength out of the mold, the same for compression mold, Michaelis' machine for testing the tensile strength of cement briquettes, J. Amsler Laffon and Sohn's press for testing the compression strength up to 30 tons, the same up to 60 tons, Bauschinger's machine for testing resistance to abrasion, J. Amsler Laffon and Sohn's apparatus for testing permeability of mortar, apparatus for frost tests and Michaelis' apparatus for testing adhesive strength of cement. In the kiln house there are three round kilns, each having down draught and upper dome firing chamber of capacity of 12.54, 4.28 and 0.61 cubic meters respectively, muffle kiln, recuperative gas muffle furnace for enameled ware, tank furnace for melting enamel, recuperative gas pot furnace for melting glass, frit furnace, coke trial wind furnace, recuperative gas trial kiln, Seger's trial kiln, gas trial muffle kiln, Deville's trial kiln, Seger's draught meter, Fery's radiations pyrometer, Le Chatelier's pyrometer, graphite pyrometer, et cetera.

The manufacture of porcelain and earthenwares is an important industry in Japan as seen from the amount of export as well as home consumption. In the mode of manufacture there are still many points to be improved after careful investigation, and experiments are already started for this purpose. The results of some of them have already been published in the report of the institution. It was in 1906 when the construction of buildings and furnace were completed and all machines were set up, that the experimental manufacture of hard faience based on scientific researches was undertaken and the result proved successful. In Japan up to the present, people have chosen porcelain for their daily use so that the manufacture of hard faience has been neglected. The result is that we are hardly able to find any faience wares of hard quality, uniformly formed, and beautifully painted. In recent years, however, demand for this kind of ware has greatly increased as it has been found that hard faience wares are best fitted for household uses. Therefore, the production of this kind of keramic ware is of great importance and our experiments may prove of great benefit to those who intend to start such works.

Last year the building for the Fourth Department was laid out and equipped. At present technical experiments in dyeing can be satisfactorily carried out.

The building is of brick and covers 1,230 square metres and is divided into scouring and bleaching, dip dyeing, printing, finishing, weaving, laboratory, testing of yarns and textile fabric, balance and sample rooms.

Beside the brick building there is a wooden building covering 142 square metres and divided into hand printing, indigo vat and store rooms. Engine and stoving rooms made of brick are near the main building.

In the scouring and bleaching rooms there are high pressure bleaching kier, roller and slack washing machine, crabbing machine, broad scouring ma-

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chine, chlorine dissolving apparatus, electrolyser for the production of bleaching liquor and hydro-extractor. In the dip dyeing room there are copper cased cast iron dye-beck, two dyeing jiggers, two special dyeing jiggers, two immedial dyeing jiggers, padding machine, experimental loose wool dyeing machine, experimental cop dyeing machine, yarn washing machine, hydro-extractor and steam drying cylinder; in the printing room there are a set of four double cased copper color pans, wall color and starch filtering machine, laboratory, one-color printing machine, three-color sample printing machine. hot air drying chamber, yarn printing machine, laboratory steaming box, high pressure steaming apparatus, aniline and hydro-sulphite ageing machine, soaping machine and forcing machine. In the finishing room there are gas singeing machine, shearing machine, brushing machine, horizontal drying machine, clip stretching machine, back starching machine, spray dampening machine, friction starching machine, three bowls light friction calender, hydraulic riffle calender, winding machine, pressing and drying machine for silk fabrics, breaking machine, silk yarn stretching and glazing machine, and steaming frame; in the weaving room there are silk warping and beaming machine, silk warp winding machine, silk weft winding machine, light silk loom, dobbie loom, and Jacquard loom. In the testing room of yarns and textile fabrics there are Lambrecht's ploymetre, conditioning oven, serimetre, two single thread testing machines, light cloth testing machine, Hebdon's patent cloth testing machine, testing machine for the wearing quality of cloth, count reel and warp block.

The dyeing industry makes an important figure in the list of Japanese industries and it is widely practised in connection with the weaving industry. Before all the machines were set up in the new building a number of applications were received by those engaged in these investigations. Accordingly these were carried on as far as the equipments of the laboratory allowed.

The Fifth Department serves the electro-chemical industry which has now become the most interesting and important branch of chemical industry, producing annually a large amount of caustic soda, chlorates, nitrates, carbides, calcium cyanamide, phosphorus, aluminium etc. As there is natural water power and raw material in abundance, the development of this new branch is of great importance to Japan. To call attention to this subject and to carry out necessary experiments, the Government decided last year to establish an electro-chemical department as the Fifth Department of the institution. Accordingly, a brick building was set up as a laboratory and a wooden building for an experiment room, employing extra high tension current, a switch board room, an electric furnace room, a transformer room, a storage battery room, an electrolysing room, an electroplating room and a finishing room. Besides the above buildings, there are a store-house and a workshop.

As to the work of this department, we may mention that the experimental preparation of patassium chlorate from the chloride left as a by-product after iodine manufacture from kelp, aluminium from some kinds of clays and chlorine compounds to utilize chlorine, which is produced by electrolytic preparation of caustic soda, have already begun and as far as experiments go the results are very promising.

Japan has at present to make much effort in order to promote her industrial position. The *raison d'etre* of the Industrial Laboratory is to serve the country in this very respect. Manufacturers, especially those who are engaged in the industries connected with the work of this Laboratory, may utilize for their own industries the investigations and experiments of the Industrial Laboratory.

Such a short time has elasped since the establishment of the Laboratory, it can not be said that it has accomplished much, but all the work above mentioned, which is more or less meritorious, shows how the Industrial Laboratory aids in the progress of Japan's industries.

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ASCENT OF MOUNT FUJI

MOUNT Fuji, or *Fuji-no-Yama*, as termed by the native poets, is the grandest and highest mountain in Japan, and is held as the most sacred of all the many holy mountains. It rises alone from an immense plain to the height of 12,390 feet. Though a non-active volcano (its last eruption having occurred in 1707) steam still rises from many fissures on the eastern side of the summit, just below the rim of the crater.

It is nearly always below the freezing point at the summit even in the hottest part of summer, and preparations for the ascent must be attended to with care as to taking extra warm clothing, as well as provisions, to meet the varying circumstances.

There are six distinct routes by which the ascent can be made, two of which, from Suyama and Gotemba, merge into the same trail at something more than half the distance up, making it finally five separate trails.

Travelers in Yokohama or Tokyo invariably take the Tokaido railway to Gotemba, which is the nearest and most accessible starting point; but others, from a desire for variety, take the central railroad from Tokyo to Ozuki, approaching Mount Fuji from the north, or again persons from Kobe, or the western side, take the Tokaido line and leave it either at Iwabuchi on the west side of *Fujikawa* (Fuji River) or at Suzukawa, and from there go to the village of Yoshiwara as a starting place. Ascent may also be made from Hitoana, at the extreme west side, which is more convenient for natives living through the western part, but is seldom used by foreigners, the distance being too great from either railroad.

Those ascending by way of Gotemba, usually plan to reach that station in the evening and to remain at the Fujiya Hotel over night, in order to set out at dawn the next morning, taking the Nakabata path, where horses and coolies are engaged by foreigners, the horses being used for the first two and a half hours' journey that will bring the traveler to Umagaeshi, the stopping place for horses, for it is yet considered, by the masses, to be a sacrilege to allow an animal to tread upon the sacred cinders of Fuji, but we push on a little further to Tarabo, where we are compelled to leave the horses.

For the ascension of Mount Fuji great care should be exercised in choosing reasonable weather conditions, and in going fully prepared for being compelled to remain on the mountain several days, should severe storms come on during the ascent or descent, for in such case, it is most dangerous to make the slightest attempt to proceed, and necessary to seek shelter in the established places for that purpose where one is a grateful prisoner until the storm abates, for both wind and rain are terrific.

On the approach of a storm while ascending it is well to notice whether the wind blows from the base or the top of the mountain; if the former, there need be no fear, though the traveler may be surrounded by cloud and mist, but if the latter, it is advisable to seek shelter as quickly as possible as it presages a heavy storm.

The coolies carry all additional clothing necessary as well as provisions. One coolie to two persons is sufficient, unless weakly persons are in the party, then it is necessary to have a separate man for the weak one. Although Mount Fuji is one of the eaiest mountains of its height to ascend, on account of its gradual rise over a smooth path unobstructed by the difficulties generally besetting ordinary mountain climbing, yet, it is well to remark that persons in a weakly state, or beyond the age of continued strenous exertion should avoid undertaking the journey, though there are many such who make the ascent, much to their regret. In such cases two coolies are generally employed to assist; one with ropes fastened around the waist,

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pulling the victim up, while the other pushes.

At Tarabo, stout staffs of oak called *konzodzue* may be purchased; these are almost necessary, as one sinks in the cinder sand the assistance of a staff is of great advantage.

There are ten stations along the ascent, at reasonable distances apart, established as resting places, where native refreshments can be had. On reaching the third station one enters the Hoelzan district which continues to the fifth, where the first lava stream on this side is met; this affords a more comfortable foothold to the traveler.

At the sixth station, the circle path that leads to Hoeizan proper, and the favorite path around the mountain is teached. At this height, which varies from 7,500 to 9,500 feet, many who have time and who are embued with love for the picturesque, undertake the circuit so as to enjoy the magnificent views afforded from every side, from many special points of vantage.

If the traveler is fortunate enough to have clear weather, and he is foolish to undertake it otherwise, the wonderful panoramic scene unfolded to his view is sublimely grand. Passing around to the south, away beyond is to be seen a group of mountains, Ashitakayama, presenting a gamut of varying greens of peculiar quality, known only in Japan; then the blue waters of Suruga Bay forming a magnificent blue of mingled tones in sapphire and ultramarine that set off the greens and warm yellows in the field of view, blurring in misty scenes of exquisite beauty. Proceeding to the western side, the villages of Murayama, Kitayama, Kamiide and Hitoana are seen in succession.

The road takes one through the hollow made by the last eruption, to a broad plateau, where cast off sandals are seen by hundreds. Passing Murayama ascent hut number five, on that trail, the path leads over large lava furrows until it reaches the great ravine; descending to the left of the immense mass that projects over the yawning gap, it leads through a beautiful wood, thickly studded with larches and rhododendrons; passing over the ravine, through the wood, to a more northern part of the cone, which is somewhat bare, is an extended view of the lakes Motosu, Shoji, Nishinoumi and Kawaguchi; we arrive at Komitake where the temple of that name is prettily ensconced and where a good shelter hut is found.

The traveler will find it to his advantage to make himself comfortable for the night, and rest both mind and body from the strain and excitement of such beauties, panoramics, and tired muscles. If favored with a glorious sunset, the view from this point will never be forgotten. An early breakfast and prompt start is advisable for containing the journey and seeing the wonderful landscape and the sunrise. Keeping well to the right, as the trail divides, Yoshida resting place is reached; passing this and continuing the journey, a fine view is had of Lake Yamanaka. The path now winds over the lava furrows to the Subashiri trail, and resting hut number five, belonging to that series, after which we soon reach the starting point again, where we once more start upward for the summit.

From this point to the eighth resting place, Hachigome, the road is good, but after leaving the latter, it becomes somewhat disagreeable under foot, owing to the loose cinders. On reaching the top or tenth hut, comes the reward for the long climb, views of amazing grandeur and beauty.

A rest is welcome in one of the three huts on this side, after which a dêtour should be made about the crater. There are several ways of doing this; by the inner circle within the crater, called *Uchiwa Meguri* by the Japanese; around the outer circle, called *Ohachimawari*, and by the eight peaks projecting around the outer circle, called *Sotowa Meguri*. The latter way is considered the best and most interesting, as the tourist can both see into the crater's basin and also have a clear view of the surrounding country. Many also include a descent into the basin, which is estimated to be about 580 feet, the return climb of which will occupy about an hour.

While on the summit every one pays a visit to the Shinto shrine, Okumiya,

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BUSHIDO OF SATSUMA

By K. S. KOMORI

EX-COMMISSIONER OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

(TRANSLATION)

VIII

TWENTY-FIFTH in the line of the ruling Shimadzu princes was the celebrated Shigehide. One of his daughters had been given in marriage to the *shogun*, at Yedo, and Shigehide's influence at the *shogun's* Court was not small.

He was a man of high spirit, keen penetration and progressive ideas, and appreciating the difference in the status of the people of his own clan (who, pursuing a policy of extreme isolation, had developed obstinancy to the point of rudeness in their manners and customs, and spoke a dialect hardly understood by others) and those of refinement with whom he came in contact in the capital, he regretted that his people were subjects of ridicule, and conceived a plan for introducing the more elegant manners and speech of the metropolis among the people of Satsuma, by establishing an institution for the intellectual training of the rising generation.

This was called the Zoshikwan, and still exists, having been converted into what is now known as the Seventh High School. In it he placed images of the Chinese Sages, such as Confucius and Mencius, and gave great encouragement to the study of Chinese classics, as well as the national literature of Japan.

Next, he founded a library, placing there a collection of valuable books, with the hope of promoting literary culture and attainments. In the same year he opened a school of training in military exercises such as fencing, archery and horsemanship; and then followed a school of medicine and an observatory, the results from the latter being several corrections in the calendar.

Under his administration investigations were made as to the products of the Loochoo Islands, and industrial enterprises were encouraged, botanical and pharmaceutical gardens and pasture farms were planted.

Shigehide had acquired some knowledge of the Chinese spoken language and also of Dutch, which he was able to write with some skill, and once visited Siebold, a Dutch gentleman in Nagasaki, from whom he obtained information as to the state of affairs in Western countries. He renewed his efforts toward intellectual progress, and called upon the literati of his clan to compile books on history, botany and other branches of learning. In fact his enterprises of reform were so manifold and so radical in nature, that he may well be compared to Peter the Great; he undertook to accomplish for Satsuma what that ruler did for Russia. And the same abuses which followed in the train of the civilizing reforms of the great Russian sovereign brougut ruin to the progressive Satsuma prince. Together with the institutions of learning and facilities for

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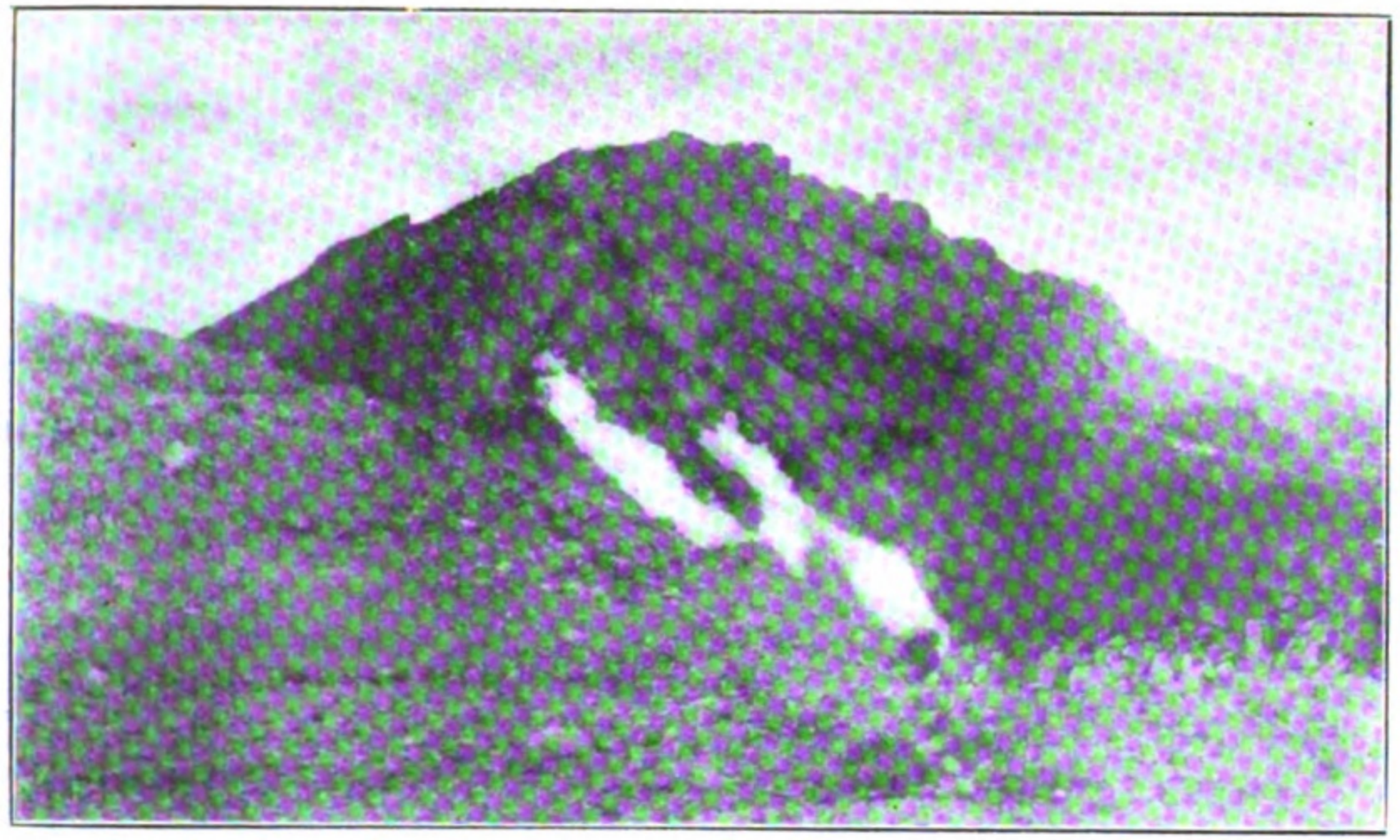
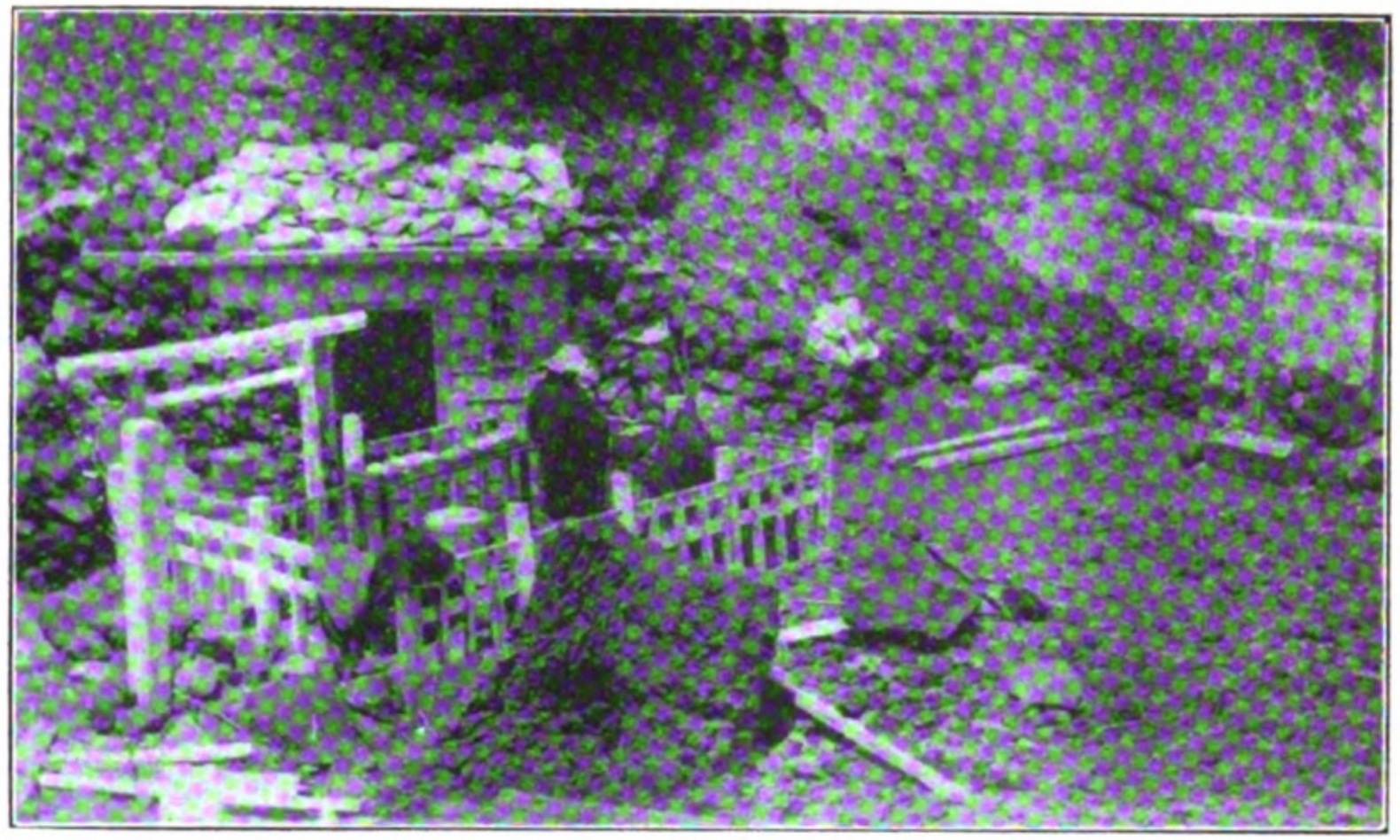


KENGAMINE, (IRREGULAR PEAK). (*La sommet irrégulière*).



GIMMEI-SUI, (SILVER WATER). (*L'eau d'argent*). (*reines Wasser*)

HACHIGOME. *Le huitième cabane*

ISHIMURO, (STONE ROOMS). (*Chambres de pierre*). (*Steinzimmer*)

STATIONS ALONG THE ASCENT OF MT. FUJI. *LES STATIONS SUR LA ROUTE DE L'ASCENSION DE MONT FUJI.*
STATIONEN BEI DER HINAUFSTEIGUNG VON DER BERG FUJI

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where the priests in charge, for the small fee of one cent each, stamp one's staff and other articles, attesting to the fact that he has successfully reached the summit. To the left of this shrine is the peak of Kengamine, which is the highest point on the summit and where an observatory was built by Mr. Nonaka Itaru, in 1895. The next highest peak is Hakusandake, and not far distant is a place where pure crystal water gushes forth, which has been named *Kimmeisui*, or 'pure gold water.'

The next important elevation is called Idsudake, where there is much warmth in the ground; and at Shojudake by making a shallow hole in the ground one can boil an egg in about half an hour. There is another spring, produced by the melting of the ice and snow; this is called *Ginmeisui*, or 'clear silver water.' These waters are supplied to travelers at a small charge.

Commencing the superb views of the country from the highest peak, Kengamine, at the south, we see the bay of Suruga enclosed by the Idzu peninsula on the east and the mainland of Suruga on the West; with the mountains of Koshu and Shinshu running directly north, the valley of the Fuji-kawa and its stony bed. The western view is of the granite peaks of Jizo, Ho-o-zan, and still further the summits of Shirane, Komaga-take and Kisogawa, and due west, of Shichimen-zan rising directly behind the village of Minobu. North-west is the long range of mountains that divides northern Suruga from Shinshu, and run north, forming the dividing line between Koshu and Shinshu; with many peaks of individual mountains, that rise in Koshu. Turning to the north we see in succession the many mountains and a wonderful panoramic scene of exceptional beauty, extending as far as Nagano in clear weather. Then there are the extinct volcano Myoko-zan and the many summits of Yatsuga-take; and looking directly north we see Karisaka-toge and the rocky peaks of many other noted mountains; further north and more easterly, Asamayama, whose column of smoke and steam proclaims her energetic activity, and whose animation has proved so fatal, recently, to the over-venturesome; looking easterly, the many ranges in Shimotsuke are brought to view, among which are the Nikko mountains, in which the sacred city of Nikko lies.

Looking across the great plain of Musashi on the edge of which is Tokyo, we see Tsukuba-san, and the many picturesque peaks of adjoining mountains situated in Hitachi; from there the eye may wander ocean-ward and see the multitudinous capes, bays and islands that form the coast of Japan on the great Pacific.

It is, unfortunately, rare that the traveler has the golden opportunity of seeing the above as described, July and August, the only months in which it is allowable to climb Fuji, being the stormy season, of both wind and rain; but at the same time one of the grand and awe-inspiring experiences is to be at the top, above the sea of rolling clouds, where an occasional break in it will disclose a view that impresses one with the idea that he has been transported to another world; other wonderful sights are Fuji's shadow on the clouds, and the Brocken figures.

A most interesting thing to foreigners is the continuous stream of native pilgrims to the shrine on the summit dedicated to the Goddess Hanasakuhime, who make the ascent in the belief that it purifies them. They are seen in bands, that generally represent particular localities of the various provinces, and have a leader, usually a veteran climber. All cry out in chorus at short intervals, *Zange! Zange! Rokkon shojo!*, signifying the purification of all their sins as they ascend; they also cry out, *Oyama Suten!* which is a prayer to heaven to keep the weather fine. Early August is the favorite time among these pilgrims.

The descent is made very rapidly, the horses again mounted and Gotemba reached; then back to the city by rail. On the way it is well to keep an eye towards Fuji about sunset for some of the most beautiful effects may be caught as one travels homeward.

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EDUCATION IN KOREA

WITH regard to educational reforms in Korea since 1906, modern common schools, in accordance with the advice of the Resident General, were established by the Government in important places throughout the country as models ; and a normal school, a high school and a foreign language school, poorly conducted, were re-organized after a better system. The second stage of the educational reforms was commenced in 1908 with the supervision and control of numerous private schools and of text books of a seditious nature indiscriminately used by private schools. In order to encourage female education, a girls' high school was established by the Government to serve as a model, and a system of separate classes for girls was also provided in common schools without radically introducing co-education which is contrary to popular prejudices. In 1909, reform measures entered the third stage, being directed towards encouraging and stimulating industrial and technical ideas in order to meet the existing condition of the country. This was effected by promulgating Regulations concerning industrial schools and by increasing the curriculum of agriculture, commerce and industry in the normal school, high school and common schools.

Regulations concerning common schools and their detailed rules were modified in April, 1909. Thenceforth the schools were authorized to collect a tuition fee of the lowest amount ; the fixed number of students in a class was increased from 50 to 60, and the supervision of text-books was strictly enforced. Lessons concerning industry in the supplementary course of common schools were also made compulsory, and lessons relating to agriculture and commerce might be added to the curriculums according to local conditions. With the encouragement of industrial education in the common schools, graduates of the Industrial Training School and the Agricultural and Dendrological School were distributed among them as instructors.

The public common schools established directly by the Educational Department or by Provincial Governments are gradually obtaining better results as model schools for the country. People appreciating the work done by these schools, the entrance of students is increasing year by year. But the financial sources being limited, no public school was established in 1909, except one in Fusan. However, the Government commenced to appoint private schools, selecting them from among those located in places convenient for communications and maintaining proper organization and equipment according to the provisions of the Regulations concerning common schools. Thus 31 schools were appointed, to each of which a competent Japanese teacher and a Korean instructor holding a common school teacher's certificate are attached ; and these schools are expected to serve as models like the public common schools.

As to female education, since the establishment of separate classes exclusively for girls in the principal com-

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mon schools, their attendance has shown an increase. The schools maintaining separate classes for girls are seven in all, their localities being Seoul, Pyeng-yang, Kai-syong, Mokpo, Chyong-jyu, Masampo, and Kang-hoa. The general condition of the common schools is shown in the following table:

Description	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers			No. of Students		
		Japanese	Koreans	Totals	Male	Female	Totals
Schools maintained by the Educational Department	9	11	46	74	1,859	61	1,920
Schools maintained by Provincial Governments with subsidy from Central Treasury	51	64	227	291	7,936	451	8,387
Public Common Schools established under the Old Regulations	34	6	81	87	2,229	19	2,248
Appointed Private Common Schools receiving Government subsidy	31	33	88	121	2,175	129	2,304
Totals	125	114	442	556	14,199	660	14,859

Regarding the common school expenses, ¥82,700 was estimated in the budget for 1909. ¥15,550 for the ordinary expenses of common schools maintained by the Educational Department; ¥65,000 for subsidies given to the other public common schools maintained by the provincial government; ¥2,700 for subsidies given to private common schools especially appointed by the Government.

With the encouragement of industrial education in the common schools, the Regulations of the Normal School were modified in April, 1909, by which manual training became compulsory and lessons on agriculture or commerce might be added to the curriculums with the approval of the Minister of Education. The fixed number of students in a class was also increased from 40 to 50.

The Seoul Normal School, the only school of its kind in Korea, had no graduates in the main course in 1909, but there were 29 from the short-term course and 31 from the temporary lecture course. All the graduates from these two courses were appointed assistant teachers in the common schools.

Interest in education being gradually stimulated among Koreans, the number of applicants for entrance into the Normal School increased largely. Thus there were 1910 applicants for the main course, and 340 for the short-term course, making a total of 1,250. Of these, 98 successfully passed the entrance examination for the main course and 96 for the short-term course, 194 in all.

The Regulations for high schools were also modified in 1909 in the sense that the period of study in the schools may be shortened from four years to three years according to local conditions. With the increase of the common schools, the preparatory course provided for high cchools was abolished, but a supplementary course for further study by graduates may be provided if necessary. The school may arrange for one or two lessons in agriculture, commerce and industry as a compulsory curriculum.

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The Japanese Language School at Pyeng-yang being converted into a high school in March, 1909, became the second high school in Korea, the other one being in Seoul. The specified period of graduation in the Seoul High School is four years. This school gives optional lessons in English and commerce in addition to the regular curriculum of elementary education; while the specified period of graduation in the Pyeng-yang High School is three years and lessons in English and agriculture are optional. Applicants for entrance into high schools recently increasing with the increase of graduates from common schools, the high schools have brighter prospects; for example, the Seoul High School received 194 applicants and the Pying-yang High School, 209 applicants, of whom 72 passed the entrance examination. The former had 22 thelatter 13 graduates in March, 1909.

The Regulations for girls' high schools also were revised in 1909. Lessons in sewing in the main and preparatory courses, hitherto optional, were made compulsory, while lessons in making artificial flowers were made optional. The Seoul Girls' High School is the only one maintained by the Government. Although the school was not opened until July, 1908, the students are on the increase owing to the encouragement of female education. Observing that early marriage exists in Korea, the school admits even the entrance of married girls as a temporary measure.

Regulations concerning the Foreign Language School were modified again in 1909, in the sense that an applicant for entrance to the school must be a graduate of a common school aged 12 years or upwards, or must have the same qualifications as a common school graduate. The Japanese Language School in Pyeng-yang was converted into a high school in April, 1908, while a similar school in Chemulpo was reorganized into an industrial school in May. As stated in the last Annual Report, five foreign language schools in Seoul were amalgamated into one foreign language school, in 1908, and divided into five sections, giving instruction in Japanese, English, French, German and Chinese, respectively. At the end of December, 1909, there were 443 students. Of these, 228 were in the Japanese section, 124 in the English section, 33 in the Chinese section, 16 in the German section, and 8 in the French section in addition to 34 in the Japanese short-term course. When the entrance examination was held in March, 1909, there were 1,130 applicants, of whom 307 passed the examination.

The Government first established the Industrial Training School at Seoul and the Agricultural and Dendrological School attached to the Model Farm in Suwon to serve as models in improving agriculture and industry in Korea. In order to further encourage industrial education at large, the Regulations concerning industrial schools were promulgated by Imperial Edict, industrial schools being thereby classified into four kinds—agricultural, commercial, technical and supplementary industrial. A school of any of these kinds may be established by the central Government, local government, other public association, or by private individuals or associations. However, the approval of the Minister of Education must be obtained for establishing or abolishing a school maintained by others than the central

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LEARNING TO MAKE ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS
On apprendre de faire des fleurs artificiel
Lernung künstliche Blumen zu macheu

NEEDLE-WORK CLASS
Travail de l'aiguille en classe
Nähereiklasse

SEOUL GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL. *L'ecole supérieur des filles en Seoul*
Seoul höhera Mädchenschüle

BOOK-KEEPING CLASS, FUSAN INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL. *On apprendre pour teneur des livres. Buchhaltungslehre klasse*

STUDENTS' NEEDLE-WORK
Travail de l'aiguille des ecolieres
Näherei der Schülerinen

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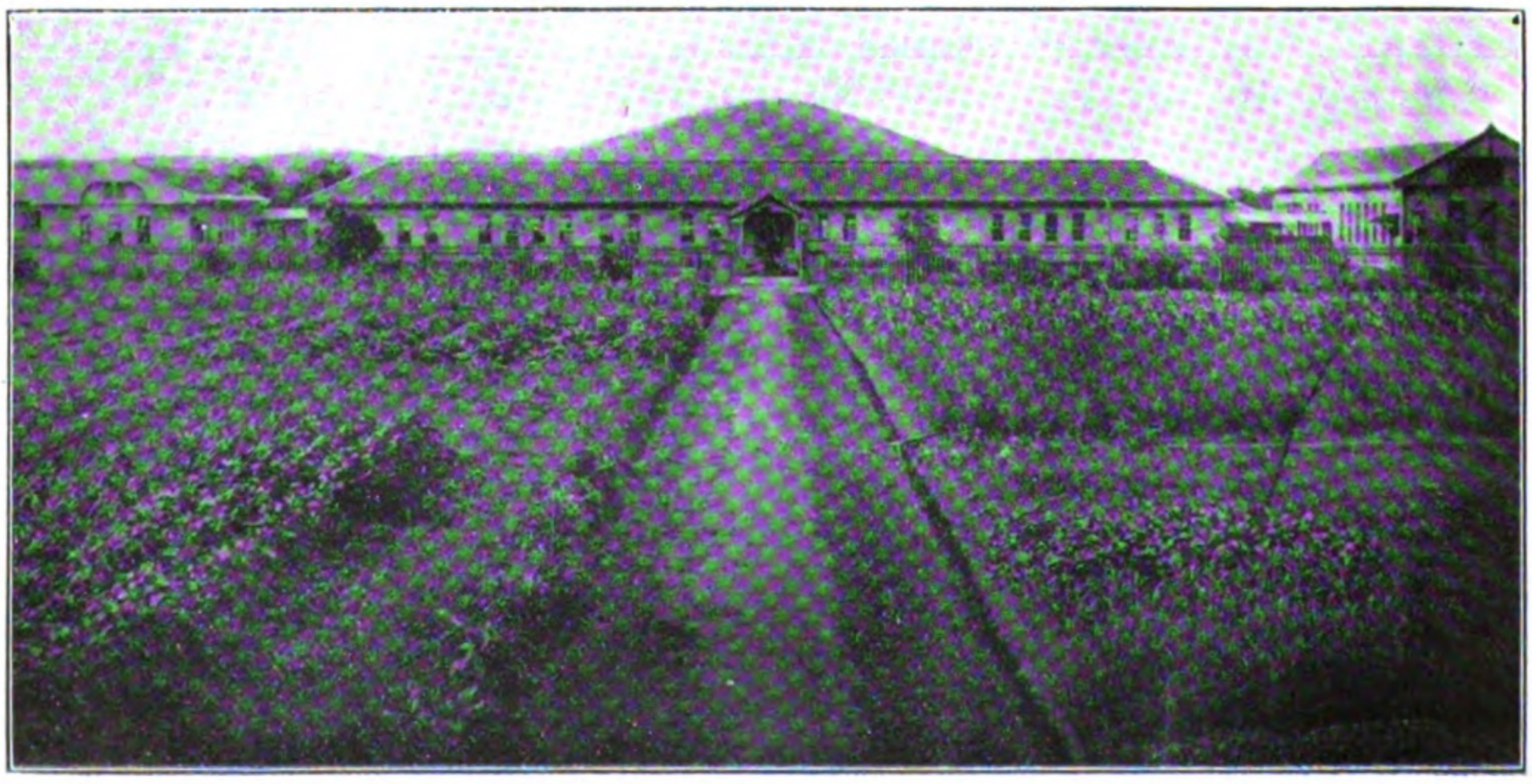
FARM TRAINING FOR STUDENTS. *Les ecolieres instruit dans le culture des fermes.*
Der Versuch der Feldbaues für die Schüler

AN INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL AT FUSAN
Une Ecole Industriel à Fusan
Eine technologische Schule in Fusan

PYENG-YANG AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL.
L'Ecole d'Agriculture à Pyeng-Yang
Pyeng-Yang Ackerbanschule



SUWON AGRICULTURAL AND DENDROLOGICAL SCHOOL.
L'Ecole d'Agriculture et de Dendrologie à Suwon
Suwon ackerbau und forstkunde Schule

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Government. The period of study in these school is specified as three years, but it may be shortened to two years according to local conditions, or a short-term course for less than two years may be added. Detailed regulations for industrial schools provided measures to encourage more practical training, avoiding unnecessary theoretical instruction, much freedom being given to the founder of a school in regard to the grade, organization and equipment, so as to meet conditions actually existing in the localities.

With the enforcement of these Regulations, the Japanese Language School in Chemulpo, maintained by the Educational Department, was converted into an industrial school. The private Japanese Language School in Fusan also has been converted into a public commercial school in accordance with the provisions of the above mentioned Regulations, and a commercial school in Seoul maintained by Mr. Kihachiro Okura, one of the wealthy merchants of Japan, has been improved in accordance with the provisions of the Regulations.

In addition, four industrial schools were newly established in Tyong-jyu, Chyoi-jyu, Hoi-yong and Ham-il, respectively.

With an increase of applicants for entrance to the Agricultural and Dendrological School controlled by the Department of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry, the Regulations concerning the school were modified. Assistant instructors were increased from two to four ; the graduating period was shortened from three to two years ; and the fixed number of students in the main course was increased from 80 to 120, 40 students being the fixed number in the short-term course.

After regular instruction in the class rooms, practical training in growing grain, vegetables, fruits, seedlings (including sericulture), stock farming, land surveying, etc, is given to the students on the appropriated lands for at least four days in every week. This school is gaining popularity year by year ; there were 670 applicants for 80 vacancies when an entrance examination was held, showing an increase of over 500 applicants compared with the previous year.

In addition to the regular training work, the Industrial Training School pays more attention to improving native industries. Hence the manufacture of Korean paper, specially that of strong quality, by the modern chemical process was commenced in the applied chemistry section. The tanning of hides, hitherto very crudely conducted by the native process, was also improved by adopting the advanced modern process. Training in land surveying being conducted by a land survey section attached to a high school and a foreign language school at Seoul, the civil engineering section maintained by this school was abolished. The work done by the school also gained more credit, so that there were 1,280 applicants for 100 vacancies when an entrance examination was held.

After regulations concerning private schools came into force the total number of private schools receiving Government recognition some time ago reached 2,180 leaving only a few schools which had not applied for such recognition. Of the recognized schools, a number were still hardly worthy to be called educational institutions, some of them not having proper equipment or a capable teaching force, and others often carelessly inspiring the students with sedi-

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tious ideas. Consequently the authorities were despatched to the interior for actual inspection, and the necessary instructions and advice were given to certain schools for their improvement. On the other hand, private schools hitherto maintaining their existence by forcibly obtaining donations from ignorant people or by contributions from market-fees and State properties managed by the local government, lost such donations or contributions as soon as the Local Expense Law came into force in October, 1909, for by that law provincial governments were authorized to levy market-fees and to manage public properties in the province concerned for educational and industrial encouragement. The Educational Department, however, commenced to improve such private schools as carried on good educational work and maintained a steady foundation, by furnishing proper subsidies from the central treasury or by causing the provincial government to support them with incomes derived in accordance with the Local Expense Law, leaving private schools that offered no hope of improvement to suffer gradual extinction.

In addition to graduates of the Normal School, certificates for teachers for common schools are given in the sequel of the annual competitive examination or by occasional recognition without examination. These certificates are divided into two classes, whereof one is of a permanent nature, the other being for a limit of six years. Granting teachers' certificates for a high school has not yet commenced. In the second teachers' certificate examination of seven applicants one for a regular teacher and one for an assistant teacher, passed the examination. Recognitions of teachers' certificates without examination are made frequently. Of 305 applicants, 226 received the teacher's certificate during 1909. If these be added to those granted since such examination or approvalcommenced, the total number who have obtained teachers' certificates by examination is 15, and the number obtaining certificates by recognition without examination reached 660. Without subjecting them to the above mentioned procedure, teachers' certificates were given to 101 Japanese who had proper qualifications and to 29 graduates of the Seoul Normal School.

The control of Educational Associations propagating a mixed idea of education and politics calculated to disturb peace and order rather than promote education, was commenced in October, 1908. Educational Associations, whether established or to be established, must obtain the recognition or approval of the Minister of Education. Thirty-three applications for the establishment of Educational Associations were submitted for Government approval or recognition up to the end of December, 1909. Of these, 22 were recognized during the year by the Government.

A higher education than that obtainable in Korea is open to Koreans by proceeding to Japan. Such students are selected by competitive examination from among graduates of the Government high school or a school, public or private, which has the same grade of curriculum, and thus the selection of such students hitherto conducted without examination was done away with. When the first examination was held in February, 1909, 9 students were selected out of 50 applicants.

The total number of students sent by the Government, including 7 sent by the Imperial Household, was 52 at the end of December, 1909. Of these, 13 were studying law, political science and economics; 9, pedagogy and literature; and 21, technical courses in such sciences as commerce, agriculture or industry. In addition there were 25 students receiving Government aid. The Educational Department has spent $274,000 as an extraordinary outlay during three years for educational reforms and improvements in Korea besides the annual expenditure designated for educational affairs.

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BUSHIDO OF SATSUMA

By K. S. KOMORI

EX-COMMISSIONER OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

(TRANSLATION)

VIII

TWENTY-FIFTH in the line of the ruling Shimadzu princes was the celebrated Shigehide. One of his daughters had been given in marriage to the *shogun*, at Yedo, and Shigehide's influence at the *shognn's* Court was not small.

He was a man of high spirit, keen penetration and progressive ideas, and appreciating the difference in the status of the people of his own clan (who, pursuing a policy of extreme isolation, had developed obstinancy to the point of rudeness in their manners and customs, and spoke a dialect hardly understood by others) and those of refinement with whom he came in contact in the capital, he regretted that his people were subjects of ridicule, and conceived a plan for introducing the more elegant manners and speech of the metropolis among the people of Satsuma, by establishing an institution for the intellectual training of the rising generation.

This was called the Zoshikwan, and still exists, having been converted into what is now known as the Seventh High School. In it he placed images of the Chinese Sages, such as Confucius and Mencius, and gave great encouragement to the study of Chinese classics, as well as the national literature of Japan.

Next, he founded a library, placing there a collection of valuable books, with the hope of promoting literary culture and attainments. In the same year he opened a school of training in military exercises such as fencing, archery and horsemanship; and then followed a school of medicine and an observatory, the results from the latter being several corrections in the calendar.

Under his administration investigations were made as to the products of the Loochoo Islands, and industrial enterprises were encouraged, botanical and pharmaceutical gardens and pasture farms were planted.

Shigehide had acquired some knowledge of the Chinese spoken language and also of Dutch, which he was able to write with some skill, and once visited Siebold, a Dutch gentleman in Nagasaki, from whom he obtained information as to the state of affairs in Western countries. He renewed his efforts toward intellectual progress, and called upon the literati of his clan to compile books on history, botany and other branches of learning. In fact his enterprises of reform were so manifold and so radical in nature, that he may well be compared to Peter the Great; he undertook to accomplish for Satsuma what that ruler did for Russia. And the same abuses which followed in the train of the civilizing reforms of the great Russian sovereign brougut ruin to the progressive Satsuma prince. Together with the institutions of learning and facilities for

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advancing literary culture, had come wrestling halls, public houses and *geisha*, and the stoical men of Satsuma drifted into the loose habits of ease that dominated life at Court. Shigehide's attempt to refine the manners of his men, but at the same time preserve their Spartan spirit was an utter failure.

A strong reaction set in against the policy which he had practised; he was upbraided for wasting public funds, for causing the apparent degenerency of a martial clan; and there rose a party of his clansmen who advocated Satsuma ways for Satsuma *samurai*, and among the leaders were men of some prominence, for what was regarded as the extravagance of the ruling prince had depleted the clan treasury, and these men were alive to the urgent necessity of some drastic measure of retrieve.

So it happened that Shigehide was obliged to abdicate, or become *inkyo*, his son Narinobu succeeding to the principality (1787–1809). Notwithstanding the disapprobation of many of his clansmen, and his final failure to realize his ideals, he had widely extended the sphere of social intercouse of the Shimadzu family, and gained great prestige among the *daimyo* of the realm.

Narinobu determined upon a plan contrary to custom, in order to reorganize the administration of the clan and regain financial power; he appointed to office men of ability and high character rather than those of high lineage, who had fallen into too luxurious living and its evil effects. His chief councilor, or *karo*, Chichibu Taro, was chosen from low rank *samurai*, but was a man worthy the trust, and became a statesman of such power as to be regarded by men like Saigo and Okubo, as the ablest one Satsuma ever produced.

He was a man of learning as well as courage, being well versed in the teachings of the great Chinese philosopher, Oyōmei, whose principles of knowledge and action (to know a thing and put it into practise) he sought to embody in his daily life.

Men of ability flocked around him and he was able to introduce much needed reforms, replacing inefficient officials of long standing, whom he discharged unhesitatingly regardless of their rank and social position, by well qualified and competent active young men in every department of the clan government. Strict discipline was enforced, and thorough reform seemed to be well on the way. But eventually the dismissed and indignant officials formed a clique against Prince Narinobu and his radical councilor, Chichibu, charging them with having conspired against and forced Shigehide to retire, which brought about such a bitter controversy that the Shogunate stepped in, and being opposed to the measures taken by the officials in power, sentenced Chichibu and ten of his men to commit *hara kiri*; and more than a hundred of his adherents were either exiled to distant islands or imprisoned (1808).

The following year Narinobu was compelled to withdraw from office, and general retrogression began again, because the prince succeeding him, Narioki, was at that time greatly influenced by Shigehide, and his policy being in operation, the heavy expenses of the administration soon overwhelmed it with debt. An able financier was needed and found in an humble *samurai*, named Dsushi Hirasato, who, in a few years, accomplished the task of paying the

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debts and placing the finances of the clan on a sound basis. He also endeavored to stimulate the productive industries, and succeeded in gaining a monopoly for the Satsuma clan over the products of Loochoo and other southern islands.

During this period of Satsuma history both French and English men-of-war came to Loochoo (1844–48) and demanded the opening of the country to commerce and communication, and the freedom of religious propaganda. Prince Narioki sent his retainers to Loochoo at once in case of emergency, and also reported to the *shogun* for instructions.

Narioki had some knowledge of Western fire arms, and realized the utter uselessness of Japanese arms as opposed to such improved appliances as used by Occidentals, and encouraged the study of Western military methods, and ordered the manufacture of cannon and small arms according to instructions gained through books translated from the Dutch. Notwithstanding all his efforts to encourage his clan to activity, there seemed little change in the spirit of the people.

The twenty-eighth representative of the Shimadzu family, Nariakira, followed Narioki in 1851, remaining in power for seven years, during which time he distinguished himself so far as to be regarded not only as one of Satsuma's greatest men, but as one of the greatest of the Empire. As chief of his clan, he shed lustre upon the history of Satsuma, and revived the old *samurai* spirit.

Nariakira was held in highest estimation by his contemporaries. Matsudaira Shungaku, *Daimyo* of Echizen, and Prime Minister of the Shogunate, wrote in his diary: "The Meiji Restoration may be said to have been brought about by Shimadzu Nariakira. This personage was, at the same time, my friend and preceptor. Although without any exterior signs of his greatness, being modest and unassuming in manners, he was a man of high courage and spirit, learned in many ways, but one who laid greater importance upon moral character than accomplishments.

"It was he who first had constructed a Japanese man-of-war on Western models; also machinery of European type; it was really he who inspired such men as Saigo and Okuma, who have figured so prominently as makers of New Japan. Nariakira may have seemed penurious when small amounts of money were under consideration, but his generosity was shown when sums above five thousand dollars were in question, for he was ever ready to spend willingly for a useful purpose. I consider him the most noteworthy among inaugurators of the New Imperial Regime."

The late Count Katsu, who was the most interesting character in the employ of the Tokugawa *Shogun* during the years of Meiji Restoration, spoke as follows concerning Nariakira: "Gentle and modest in disposition, of elegant and refined personality, the Prince (Nariakira) was conciliatory and unassuming, but at the same time he had an air of unassailable dignity. He towered above his contemporaries in broadness of mind and powers of discernment, and the figure of this talented man has had no small influence over the men of genius Satsuma has since produced."

Be it said, that like other great men in the world, Nariakira owed not a little to his mother, Princess Iyo, a lady of literary abilities, noted for her wisdom and attainments She was devoted to her son, and exercised great care with regard to his education and training. He seems also to have inherited many of the qualities of his great-grand-father, Shigehide.

Nariakira applied himself to the study of statesmanship from his early youth, and maintained intimate friendships with the wisest men of his clan. At the same time, he never disdained to call upon his humblest subject, and kept in touch with the life of the people, and so drew near to them and enjoyed unbounded popularity; however, his position was neither safe nor pleasant as will be shown.

(*To be continued.*)

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JAPANESE FISHERY

TWENTY years ago the purse seine was, for the first time, adopted for fishing in Japan. The practise was modeled after that prevalent in America. At present as many as 500 of these seines are used by sardine fishers in various parts of the country.

Sardines form one of the most important aquatic products in Japan, the annual output reaching over $4,000,000. Sardine fishing was done formerly by means of a ground seine together with a gill net and drifter. Within recent years the number of sardine near the shore has considerably decreased, so that fishing was started off the coast, in which the American method of using the purse seine was followed. The ring in the pocket has been improved, producing a net which is generally known as the improved purse seine.

The period of fishing varies more or less according to districts, but spring and autumn are the best seasons.

The purse seine is extensively used along the Pacific coast of Japan, the western coast of the Sea of Japan and the Inland Bay of Seto. The method of fishing is carried on somewhat in this way. When two fishing boats loaded with nets reach the fishing ground, and the shoals of fish are perceived, the direction of their swimming, the current of the tide and that of the wind are carefully taken into consideration by the fishermen before the net is thrown into the sea. When the net is thrown in, it surrounds the shoal; at the entrance of the net a weight is lowered, while the drawing net passing through the ring attached to the pocket is hauled up together with the net. The fish are prepared as food, but when there is an abundant catch, they are used as a fertiiizer and also as material for fish oil.

Bonito live chiefly in the deep sea; they approach the shore very seldom so that they are chiefly caught by means of angling. In some few places the purse seine and gill net are in use, while the use of a drifter is still under experiment. The annual output reaches some three or four million dollars; bonito angling forms one of the most important branches of fishery in Japan. These fish are caught in warm currents, from April to October, by means of angling, twenty or thirty fishermen embarking in one fishing boat, taking with them anchovy or sardines as bait. Formerly the angling was done in seas near the land, but the number of fish approaching the coast has greatly decreased within recent years. In 1906, in Shizuoka Prefecture, an oil motor was installed in the fishing boat which increased the average speed of the boat, so that both by the increase in the number of those cruising and also owing to the active and brisk manipulation of the boat, the output was greatly increased. During one fishing season the catch by a single boat reached nearly $20,000.

Notwithstanding the recent origin of the practise, the method in use in Shizuoka Prefecture made striking progress in various districts; in fact in Shizuoka Prefecture, boats rowed by oars are now comparatively few. In some instances, an oil motor or steam

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A CORMORANT FISHER. *Un pêcheur avec les cormorans.*
Ein Wasserrabefischer

DRYING SARDINES. *Les sardines qui sèche.* *Trockene Sardellen.*

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CORMORANT FISHING ON THE NAGARA RIVER. *La pêche a le cormoran, sur la rivière Nagara.*
Das Wasserrabefischen auf den Fluss Nagara

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engine is used in schooners. Bonito are prized as food; the dried bonito, known as *katsuo-bushi*, is the chief article used for the purpose of seasoning in Japan. They are used on such occasions as marriages and other fêtes in the exchange of good wishes. The demand being extensive a large per centage of bonito is dried.

Tai, or porgy, is one of the principal food fish in Japan, its presence being absolutely indispensable on festive occasions, and it is seen everywhere in the market. The annual amount caught actually reaches two or three million dollars, forming another important element in Japanese fishery.

The method of fishing has made great development. There used to be numerous ways of fishing for porgy, such as scare cord seine, shore seine, ground seine, bottom seine, pound net, long lines and hand lines, but the method usually employed now is by means of a fishing implement in use in the Seto Inland Bay and its vicinity; it is used to catch porgy which assemble in the Seto Inland Bay from waters outside in order to lay their eggs. Seine boats, scare cord boats, anchor boats, and welled boats forming one company arrive at the fishing ground when the following method is adopted. They take up what is known as the *katsura-nawa* (scare-cord) which lies some 350 or 360 fathoms, to which are attached scare boards, 8 or 9 inches in length and 1.5 or 1.6 inches in breadth; four such boards are placed at every fathom in the central part of the cord while toward the ends a board at the space of one fathom is provided. These fixtures are plunged into the sea and rowed by four boats, which scares the fish to places accessible for fishing.

Two seines are cast into the sea so as to surround the fish driven by the cord. It is said that as many as 10,000 porgy are sometimes captured in one hauling. The fish are often kept in a trap whence they are taken out on suitable occasions to be supplied to the market.

From March to December, mackerel are caught along the western shore of the Sea of Japan. Torches are lit on the sea at night and numerous animalcula approach the fire, attracting the mackerel which are seeking food. Toward evening a fishing boat, manned by several fishermen, approaches the fishing ground where torches are lit; as the boats glide down the current the line is let down to catch the fish. In the prosperous season torches seem to cover the sea, and present a splendid sight. The fish are sold fresh or salted.

Dolphin usually assemble to catch small fish or animalcula which crowd around floating wood or other drifting materials. In catching dolphins fishers take advantage of their nature. There is provided a place called *tsuke*, to which the fish are decoyed. Such practise is prevalent on the coast along the Sea of Japan, the fishing season lasting four months, from July to October.

The *tsuke* is constructed in this way. Some twenty or twenty-five bamboo sticks, each with a circumference of one foot and length of nine yards, together with pawlonia imperialis, are arranged and tied up with straw ropes in the centre and at both ends. These are attached to five or six sand-bags each weighing about 20 *kwamme* and then submerged in the sea off the coast to a depth of from 50 to 300 fathoms; to this is tied a rope net. The fish assemble, attracted by drifting material and enter the net.

Artificial reef fishing is practised in districts along the western shore of the Sea of Japan and the Seto Inland Bay. An old fishing boat not fitted for further use is loaded with stones, taken to the fishing grounds and sunk; or perhaps a frame work of wood six or seven feet square is constructed, in the centre of which several sand bags are placed and submerged. The fish, seeking a refuge, congregate around these arrangements which are called *tsukiiso*, or artificial reefs.

They are usually sunk about the beginning of July, and fishing is started at the end of the month. After making these provisions the fishermen watch the crowding of the fish, and approach the

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artificial reefs where either by angling or by a kind of bottom seine, the fish are caught. This is another instance where the propensity of the fish is utilized.

The origin of cormorant fishing in Nagara-gawa, Gifu, runs back to a remote period, but with the progress of time, the fishing has grown very prosperous and now Imperial fishing grounds are established in three places. Being one of the most celebrated places of interest and attraction, people from all quarters of Japan pay a visit to Gifu, and in recent years the number of foreign visitors has also considerably increased. The Kinkwazan forms a most attractive summer resort with the quiet stream of the Nagara-gawa and its beautiful scenery.

Cormorants used for fishing are those caught on the sea coast of Shinojima, Aichi Prefecture, during the winter season. The bird's neck is seven or eight inches in length, and its body one foot three inches long; one weighing from five to seven pounds is preferable. In training the bird, the eye-lids are sewn together and when they are sent to the places of fishing, the threads are taken out; part of both wings is cut off, so disabling it from flight. The body and the beak of the bird is tied with hemp rope; then it is taken on the boat once every day, let down into the river to swim with a rope attached to it; or it is trained four or five days to stand quiet at the bow of the boat. When it is sufficiently tame, the rope tying the mouth is let loose, and the bird set at liberty to swim in shallow places with other trained birds so as to learn the method of fishing. After being trained in this way, about the following May the bird is allowed to work almost independently, at catching fish, and within a year or two it becomes a perfect master at fishing. The bird is fed once a day, at noon, with one and two-thirds of a pound of clam prey and carp, with the exception of the trout fishing season (which extends from May 11th to October 15th, this being the time when the *ayu*, or a kind of trout, attains a certain size), during which cormorant fishing is carried on every night. Nightly, with exception of a full moonlight night and when the water grows muddy after rain, the boat is glided down the stream from the upper to the lower course, while there is no moon. The cormorant fishing boat has one chief trainer, one assistant, and two boatmen. At the stern of the boat, torches are lighted. The chief trainer at the stern manipulates twelve cormorants, the assistant trainer in the centre looks after four.

The manipulation of the cormorants in fishing is carried on somewhat in the following manner. The cormorant trainer has a rope in his left hand which he lets out in order to make the action of the bird free for catching fish. As the bird sinks, floats or swims after the fish, the rope is let out adroitly. After a bird has swallowed a large number of fish, it is drawn up on the boat and the trainer with his right hand presses the throat of the bird, its beak is opened to let out the fish, and soon is set to fishing again. At times several fishing boats are so arranged as to surround the place where the water is muddy in order to catch the fish. On such occasions the torches on the boats reflected in the water, the boatmen beating the sides of the boats, cormorant trainers shouting to encourage the birds, their voices reverberating over the water, and the cormorants growing more active than ever in their movements, present an interesting sight.

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O-OKA STORIES

OKEYA JINPACHI

THERE was a man named Okeya (cooper) Jinpachi, in Tani-machi, Azabu, who was of honest and manly spirit; and as he was pretty clever at talking, he was respected by the people of the ward. He had no wife, and lived with his old mother. His house was near the home of Yechizen-no-kami Ō-oka, the mayor, and so Jinpachi went often to Ō-oka's house to put hoops on tubs, pails, etc, so that Ō-oka knew him by sight.

In the cooper's house, was a lad named Chōkichi, who from early childhood was reared by Jinpachi and his mother. He was now seventeen years of age, and was a good bright boy, learning his master's trade; he did nothing rude, and exerted himself diligently in his occupation. So Jinpachi and his mother were very pleased and always treated him with kindness, and thought they would adopt him and transfer to him the headship of the house in the future, that they might have him to moisten the lips when death was near. As Jinpachi was poor, when there was little work, he made Chōkichi call for odd jobs in the streets and the lad earned some pocket-money.

There was a fireman named Kantarō, in the vicinity of Jinpachi's house, who was a notorious gambler, and always had gambling going on in his house. Chōkichi happened to enter Kantarō's, and at once became interested; but having little money he could neither win nor lose much, and in the hope of increasing his means, he was tempted to pawn the clothes given to him by his master; but he lost all the money, and pondered how to raise more, but no good plan occurred to his mind. At length he determined that he would pledge the clothes of his master's old mother, for she could not walk, and he had no fear of her going out of the house, and when he won in gambling, he expected to redeem the pawned clothes at once and replace them secretly.

Having thus resolved, he carried her clothes out of the house and gave them in pawn, and gambled with the money; but he was again a loser. He then became desperately wicked and carried away and pawned his master's clothes for money for gambling; but alas! the luck was still against him. Now he became quite overwhelmed, and stole away to his master's house in a forlorn condition. Jinpachi rebuked him saying, "Though you finished work and carried away the vessels, you bring no money. Why is it?" Thereupon Chōkichi gave him the remaining one *k'wan mon*, and deceived him for the present by telling him that he should hand up the remaining money as soon as he received the balance. After that, having no money for gambling, Chōkichi was working in the house for some days. He was provoked that he had lost so often in gambling, and was wishing that he could win just once that he might redeem the pawned clothes and replace them; he was concentrating his thoughts for making up money to try again.

Just at this time, Ō-oka's servant came to the cooper's and gave Jinpachi

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his master's order to have a bath-tub made, and made an agreement to pay 'earnest money' three *ryō*. After the servant departed, Jinpachi went to Ō-oka's and received the money; and when he came home, he put part of it in the *kake-suzuri* (an ink-case furnished with drawers), and went away to buy materials to make the bath-tub.

As Chōkichi saw the money which Jinpachi put in the drawer, he thought that if he could go once more to the gambling-place, buy as much *koma* (chips) as one *ryō* and get together all the money in the place, he might at least recover the money he had lost recently. He could not get rid of the thought, and made up his mind that if he lost this money, he would not return, but would kill himself; but if fortune favored him, he would redeem the clothes and secretly put them back and never gamble again in his whole life.

With such a resolution he stealthily took the money from the *kake-suzuri*, and went immediately to the gambling house and said to Kantarō, "To-day I can not get along unless I win. Now I will buy *koma*." Then he threw out one *ryō*. Looking at Chōkichi, a bystander said, "You have become very rich! Lately we have been talking about you,—how you are going along —for you have not come for a long time. Now, you engage the spot of twenty-five *ryō*. Don't you?"

Having made up his mind, Chōkichi consented without any objection. Chōkichi won and gained twenty-five *ryō* at once. So he was exceedingly rejoiced. And he continued in the game. The hours passed, and finally twelve *ryō* was staked. Here thirty men, including Kantarō, were concerned; and it being the last game that night, every man was excited. As Chōkichi won ten *ryō*, of course restoring one *ryō* he lost before, and as his pocket was full, he readily engaged the bet again. Oh, how strange! the wager fell also to Chōkichi's hand. Thereupon Kantarō and the others were so astounded that they could not speak.

Then Kantarō gathered together the *koma* on the mat and changed them into real money and handed Chōkichi thirty *ryō*; yet, as the sum was two *ryō* short, he owed him for the present, promising to pay without fail the next day, and all returned to their homes. As Chōkichi had unexpectedly gained more than thirty *ryō* in one night, he was unboundedly rejoiced and came home in hot haste, and put as much money as he took out before in the *kake-suzuri*; and the next day he redeemed all the pawned clothes and put them back in their places.

After a few days, Chōkichi went to Kantarō's for the remaining two *ryō*, but Kantarō was absent, and some twenty-five other men were there, and looking at the lad, one of them said, "You skunk! the other night you broke the bank! So the master and we have no money. Indeed, you are a hateful fellow!"

"No," said Chōkichi, "I have not come to hear your grievance, but to get the money owing me. Is Kantarō absent?"

"Yes, he is absent," said one "but even if he were here, he would not pay the remaining money; so you had better return than trouble your mind about that." And being angry over the loss of their money, they reviled him in various ways. The following day Chō-

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kichi went again to Kantarō's and dunned him for the debt, saying "What will you do about the payment of the remaining money?"

Kantarō replied, "I am sorry I have had to delay the payment of the debt; but I shall certainly raise the money by this evening, I beg you to come at that time."

Chōkichi returned to the cooper's. In the evening he went to Kantarō's, but found he was again absent then some of the employes said contemptuously, "Since the remaining money is only a little, you should not be so annoying. And gambling is suspended, and we cannot drink *sake*." And they abused him vehemently. Therefore, Chōkichi was greatly angered and said, "When you won the game, you did not feel any gratitude; but when you lose, you are angry. You are selfish fellows!"

"What!" said the gamblers wrathfully, "do you say 'fellows'? That is too impolite language to bear patiently." And they set upon him and the twenty-five or twenty-six hangers-on carried Chōkichi away to the outskirts of the town and beat him.

Chōkichi returned to his master's house, seized a *gennō* (large iron hammer) and ran out. Seeing his condition, Jinpachi ran after and stopped him, inquiring, "What is the matter, and what are you going to do with that *gennō*?"

"Master forgive me!" said Chōkichi, "I bid farewell to you!" Then he shook off his master's grasp and ran away at full speed. Jinpachi was very much concerned about it, and ran after him, and as Chōkichi ran into Kantarō's, he went in the house following him. Then hearing the particulars, Jinpachi was greatly surprised and made Chōkichi go back to his house, and then he sent a messenger for Kantarō. Being acquainted with Jinpachi, he came in haste. Jinpachi then told him the circumstances, and the gambler begged forgiveness for his employes behavior and took the *sōdōko* (copper boiler attached to a cook-stove) from his furnace and bade his servant pawn it; he made up two *ryō* and handed the money to Jinpachi, and settled the matter; and then he entertained him with *sake* (rice wine) and *sakana* (fish).

(To be concluded.)

THE CLEW

The servant boy in a grog-shop went to the mansion of a feudal lord to get an order for *sake* et cetera. Just at the time some seven or eight foot-soldiers happened to be present in the kitchen, and ordered him to bring as much small silver coin as three *ryō* in change. After a short time he brought the money, and they seized the money and killed him. They then put his body in an empty cask which had contained *miso* (a kind of sauce made of wheat, *soja* beans and salt), and smeared the outside of the cask with *miso*, and then carried it out of the gate of the mansion and left it on the road outside another castle-gate. The next day the keeper of the guard-house found the cask and reported to the civil court. As there was a piece of a broken pole with it, O-oka ordered an officer to bring it as a clue for finding any fact; and as he found a brand on it, he examined the fact closely step by step, and at length found the murderers.

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FROM THE JAPANESE PRESS

REVISION AND PROLONGATION OF ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE

The Arbitration Treaty which has recently been agreed on between Great Britian and the United States of America has made it necessary to alter the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. The renewal was originally proposed to Japan by the British Government and both Japan and England having recently come to an agreement on the modification, the revised Anglo-Japanese Alliance was duly signed in London between Ambassador Kato and Secretary Gray on the 13th July.

The main alteration is that of Article IV., which pledges that in case one of the high contracting parties comes to open hostilities with a third Power, wherewith the other Power has concluded an Arbitration Treaty, the latter will not be bound with responsibility to c me to the assistance of the former, so long as the Arbitration Treaty remains in force. We need sca cely add that by a third Power is obviously meant the United States of America, and the spirit of the revised Alliance is that when there should happen a Japan-Americo War—we hope such will never happen—Great Britain will not help Japan and fight with America, so long as there is concluded an Arbitration Treaty, to which all questions affecting the rights and interests of both Powers shall be submitted for solution. "Blood is thicker than water," and since we fully recognize the ties of lineage between John Bull and Brother Jonathan, it can not be helped that the Anglo-American Arbitration Treaty should have had the influence of lessening the binding ties of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. Then a question arises,—should Japan and America come to fight by any possibility, what will be the attitude of Great Britain? Will she merely stand by and look on, or come to interfere between the two Powers? We trust such will prove an idle fear of ours about an altogether unlooked-for event.

The Yorodzu Choho.

The new Treaty of Alliance between Japan and Great Britain, according to those who are blessed with a sixth sense, or with the power to read what is on the back of the paper, is a clean victory of the American diplomacy.

The railway neutralization proposal by the United States Government was very badly snubbed both by Russia and Japan, so much so that a noble retreat for Mr. Knox was generally considered to be almost hopeless. The proposal came to be shelved, leaving behind it, however, the new but unenviable phrase of "the American fashion of diplomacy."

On the part of Mr. Knox we have reason to believe that he did not allow himself to be idle till he had struck on a plan to retaliate the snub his proposal had received at the hand of Russia and Japan, for the neutralization proposal according to many was an innocently conceived project which had for its principal object an assured peace in the sphere for the activities and expansion of American commerce and industries.

Hardly a year had elapsed since the proposal was made, when we find him broaching to the British Ambassador at Washington the draft of the General Arbitration Treaty. But when the draft was shown Hon. Bryce, the whole situation had been thoroughly talked over leaving nothing to call for serious discussions.

When the British Government sounded the views of our Government in this respect, we had only one answer to give which we now find embodied in Article IV, of the new Alliance Treaty. We are thus left alone without an ally in case of a provocation or menace from America. We are now completely isolated when a dispute should arise between us and the United States. The only consolation, however, is to be found in the excessive remoteness of the probability of Japan and America coming to blows. But the fact remains of our isolation in time of manace or

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danger to our interests on the Pacific or in Manchuria where it can not be said that they will never clash with those of the United States.

Anyhow, Mr. Knox must feel satisfied that in thus isolating and curbing us, he is amply rewarded in his efforts for retaliation.

The Alliance Treaty very seriously affects the Naval defense of our country. The standard of our Naval programme after the Russian War has been the Naval strength of the United States which could be brought into operation in the Far East. The opening of the Panama Canal and the exemption of our ally from co-operation in case of a war between our country and the United States completely alters the standard by which our Naval defense has come to be adjusted. The former was a fact known long ago, and it was already duly taken into consideration in drafting the present Naval programme, but the exception provided in Article IV. of the new alliance was quite unexpected to our Naval authorities except the few that were taken into confidence during the negotiations of the new form of alliance.

The basis of our Naval programme now calls for an entirely new arrangement which means a much greater expansion than already contemplated. This fact should be frankly stated by the Government to the representatives of the people, and at the coming session of the Imperial Diet, the new standard for our Naval defense which has been necessitated by the new alliance should be brought to the notice of the members of both Houses. The preparation must be begun at once, and it should be the duty of the Government to prepare the nation for a very considerable increase in the appropriation in the Budget for the Navy.

If the state of national finance does not admit a large amount of appropriation at once, some items of the expenditures should be sacrificed in order to keep our Navy fully efficient and up-to-date.

The extent of the Naval expansion must now be known to the authorities of the Naval command, for we have reason to believe that the whole situation had been carefully calculated almost simultaneously with the announcement of a new alliance.

In writing thus we must not be understood as apprehending a war with America. We are simply dwelliug on the technicalities of our Naval defense whose standard has been thoroughly altered on account of the exemption provided in the new compact of alliance with England.

The Katsura Ministry is apparently closing up its book very fast. What might be considered the last of the most important items has been booked to its credit in the form of the new Treaty of Alliance with Great Britain. What remain are mostly, if not wholly, routine items which could be adjusted by any government.

This does not mean, however, that important questions do not exist. Nothing can be farther from the truth than to say that the Government is now free from vital issues in home polities. But these the present Cabinet would not face. The naval expansion and the pledge to effect the re-adjustment of the national taxes are among the serious problems presenting themselves for immediate solution. The compilation of the coming year's Budget has not yet been commenced in earnest, and this fact is explained by the well-informed as the surest sign of Prince Katsura's determination to transfer the government to his successor.

It is believed that the change of Ministry will come during August, and as far as the well-informed can discover at present, the Portfolio of Finance will be taken up by Mr. Hara, of the *Seiyukai*, while that of the Home will fall on the shoulders of Mr. Matsuda. The Foreign Minister in the coming Cabinet will be either Baron Kurino, or Baron Motono.

It was at first feared that Marquis Saionji would be too wily to assume the power of government in the face of knotty internal problems involving difficult financial solution, but it seems that the Marquis has now changed his mind

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in order to save the Constitutional Party from disruption. Should the party come into power now they will command the rare advantage of conducting the General Election of the members of the Lower House under their own government. This alone appears to be the most powerful temptation to the *Seiyukai* men to come to power at any risk.

—*The Tokyo Nichi-Nichi*

It is now evident that our Government was not inclined to accept the invitation issued by the United States for taking part in the proposed General Arbitration Treaty. The present revision of the Convention between Great Britain and Japan is the natural result and also an obvious proof of our decline to the American offer. Although we heartily support the Ministry in this firm stand taken against the American invitation, yet we can not abstain from disapproving the concession they made by agreeing to accept the one-sided obligation. There are talks that Japan should join the General Arbitration Treaty that is to be concluded between Great Britain and the United States, but we strongly oppose the suggestion. If a country is to be satisfied with the name of mere independence, and only concerned about its tranquility, entirely disregarding its honor and dignity, then the General Arbitration Treaty is a thing to welcome. An arbitration treaty can not be effective unless the parties are ready to throw away their honor and dignity in case of a dispute where vital interests of either country are involved. The Westerners are on the whole imbued with individualism, and they act with great freedom in international adventures. There have been many cases where a country was driven to act quite detrimentally to another country even when those two countries were chained by a bond of some understandings. America has already shown a tendency to high-handedness in dealing with Japan. We cannot forsee what the Americans would do if they were assured against any outburst of hostilites by virtue of general arbitration. That an arbitration court which consists of white people cannot be depended upon needs no comment; the award found against Japan on the question of the house duty is still fresh in memory. Thus the arbitration treaty will only serve in bringing down the position of Japan, and our interests as well as dignity will on longer be upheld.

The Japanese people are characterized to put their country before anything and everything; and therefore, if their country is under certain obligations by a treaty, people are determined to adhere to it, courageously sacrificing their individual interests. This is a virtue as a nation, but at the same time a weakness. A treaty such as contemplated now would only deter and hamper the activities of the individual subjects in international undertakings. Besides, the Japanese are not free from Oriental short-comings; that is to say, being conservative, inactive and satisfying. If the Japanese were securely encircled by the walls of peace and tranquility they would go through a process of gradual degradation; the *Yamatō-damashii* and other admirable spirits would lose their lustre and splendor forever; we want stimulus without being bellicose.

Supposing for the sake of argument that Japan joined the Treaty and derived in consequence a good deal of benefits, yet we cannot forget the sentiments with which Japan and her people are always treated by the Westerners. Our co-operation with Great Britain and the United States could be compared with such precision to the familiar story of Onigashima. Momotorō, hero of the adventure, is followed by a dog, monkey and pheasant. They all proceed for the common object, but the fruit of their labor and the booty of their expedition fall into the hand of Momotarō only, the beasts being piteously neglected. Japan may ostentatiously be called their friend; but in reality her people would never be regarded as their equal, nor treated with fairness and impartiality. One needs not travel far afield to the striking proofs for our just charges; the rejection of our immigrants in the United States, Canada and Australia; the attempts to deprive Japan of the preferential rights in

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Manchuria speak emphatically for themselves. What we have to do now is either to upkeep our courage to face this isolation, or to try to find "another friend."

BRITISH FIDELITY

There have lately been many evidences of the changed state of mind on the part of Great Britain toward the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. The most conspicuous of them is the "Four Powers' Loan" to China. There is no doubt that the agreement is a sheer violation of the preferential right enjoyed by Japan and Russia, and which is the situation internationally admitted and recognized as well. It is evident that the Tokyo Foreign Office was not informed of the proceedings. It is surprising that Great Britain did not think it worth troubling to intimate to our Foreign Office of the proceedings. Here one will come to see a grim theory that effectiveness and usefulness of a political alliance chiefly depends on the good-will of the parties. By the Anglo-Japanese Convention the contracting parties are under obligation to communicate with each other "fully and frankly" whenever the interests of either country "are in jeopardy." Of course the instances which give rise to the obligation of mutual information are subject to free interpretations; and we are now to understand that Great Britain did not consider that our interests in Manchuria were in jeopardy through this agreement. With these evidences at hand we are in no way surprised to learn that the *Times* thinks the present moment most opportune to have the treaty revised, so that it will work smoothly with the proposed Anglo-American Arbitration Treaty. It is Great Britain's business to look after her own interests: and we have no right to preach to her. But our liking for, and attachment to, the British people compels us to warn them against too much optimism which seems to prevail there in anticipation of the effect of the Arbitration Treaty.

Count Hayashi says:—We can now safely assume that the Anglo-Japanese Alliance is the national policy of Great Britain. Some allege the new Convention entails upon Japan one-sided obligation, but such a convention should not be regarded in the same way as an ordinary commercial and navigation treaty; it is sufficient an alliance is effected between the two countries. In view of the fact that Great Britain and America are now on the point of entering into a general arbitration treaty, it is wise for Japan to join the said treaty. Between Japan and America there is no cause for a conflict, and therefore Japanese participation in the Arbitration Treaty only confirms her sentiments toward the United States. This will result in complete disappearance of frequent manifestations of the anti-Japanese feeling in the United States.

Count Okuma: The revision seems inevitable, as, while Great Britain does not like to break away from the traditional good friendship with America, she is on the other hand reluctant to abandon the once effected alliance with Japan. The outcome is to embark on this half-way-house policy. None the less our Government did not show any ingenuity in handling this problem.

Mr. Inukai: It is a fact that the importance of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance is greatly weakened. Furthermore there are signs showing that Great Britain seems to be rather anxious to act in China independently so far as her economical interests are concerned. When the proposed arbitration treaty is concluded between Great Britain and America, Japan will find herself hopelessly isolated. It is desirous that Japan should join this arbitration treaty and make known her real sentiments toward America. Viewed generally, the forced revision of the old Convention is a significant proof of the deterioration of our foreign policy. Japan must look forward elsewhere to making good what she has lost.

Mr. Hadano: Marquis Komura ought to renounce his marquisate.

—*The Osaka Mainichi*

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HOW THE JAPANESE EMPEROR SPENDS THE SUMMER

The *Nichi Nichi* has an interesting article on His Majesty the Emperor, who is leading a most strenuous life. The shade of the Palace trees and any artificial means to create a cool breeze are sternly avoided by his Majesty. In his study, he is to be seen with mechanical precision at certain hours of the day, dressed in military uniform. Stiff and uncomfortable, yet the Emperor prefers it to any other when on duty. One of his chamberlains suggested to him the desirability of an electric fan but he would not have it, remarking :—" None of these luxuries for me." Blocks of ice were proposed for the study, so as to cool the temperature. His Majesty turned his back against the innovation, and ordered the chamberlain to occupy himself with something more useful. As regards daily food, he is extremely simple. In the morning he partakes of thin rice gruel and fresh milk. For luncheon and dinner the menu is partly Japanese and partly foreign—at best, a mixture of the two. But frequently Japanese food preponderates at the rate of 4 to 1. *Tai*, *aiyu*, carp, eel, and *hamo* (species of conger) are his favorite dishes. Meat, mutton, beef and poultry form the chief articles with a goodly supply of pure *sake* from Nawa. Vegetables, always fresh and selected with great care are used. Sometimes products from the horticultural garden at Shinjiku, reared by her Majesty in person, find their way to the table. Bamboo roots and other vegetables of the season are often procured of a well known dealer at Kanda. As regards drinks, after *sake*, his Majesty prefers white wine from France, and the whole course is wound up with a piece of sponge cake, imported peaches and ice-cream.

Late in the afternoon his Majesty takes a hot bath after which he walks about in the garden, and listens to the singing insects in the bushes, most of which are caught by his grandchildren and presented to him. Altogether he is a model of simplicity; a considerate husband and a loving father.

—*Japan Advertiser*

SEALING CONFERENCE

The Pelagic Sealing Conference between Japan, Great Britain, the United States and Russia signed a convention. The signatory countries agreed to stop pelagic sealing for fifteen years in the Pacific water north of the thirtieth degree. Thirty per cent. of the skins taken by land sealing in the respective countries to be equally divided among the others.

Through this agreement our loss is considerable; for the Japanese sealers carry on their pursuits in the deep sea, and consequently the stoppage of pelagic sealing is tantamount to taking away their occupation. The distribution of skins is far from remedying Japan's loss; the skins hitherto obtained by our pelagic sealing exceed in quantity any other country. So, the seeming equity in the face of the document comes to utter unfairness when the principle is carried into effect. We all wonder why our delegates should have signed a convention so detrimental to our sealing interests. There are several clauses the execution and enforcement of which appear to us to be almost impossible. This is another demonstration of the obliging temperament of our Foreign Office toward the foreign governments.

DEATH OF PRINCESS OM

We regret to record the sudden death of the Royal wife of Grand Prince Yi of Chōsen, which took place in the capital of Chōsen. Princess Om was suffering from diarrhœa, but her case was rather lightly treated, being attended only by native doctors. Princess Om had a most romantic career. She was a lady-in-waiting to the late Empress, when she became a favorite of the then Emperor, which exited the jealousy of the Empress. As the result of persecution by the Empress she fled from the Court. When the late Empress died she appeared on the scene again and safely installed herself in the Court. Later she gave birth to a son who is now in Japan as Pince Yi, Jr. Unlike the late Empress, Princess Om was a woman of peaceful disposition, and is said to have greatly sympathized with the Japanese movements there.

—*The Osaka Mainichi*

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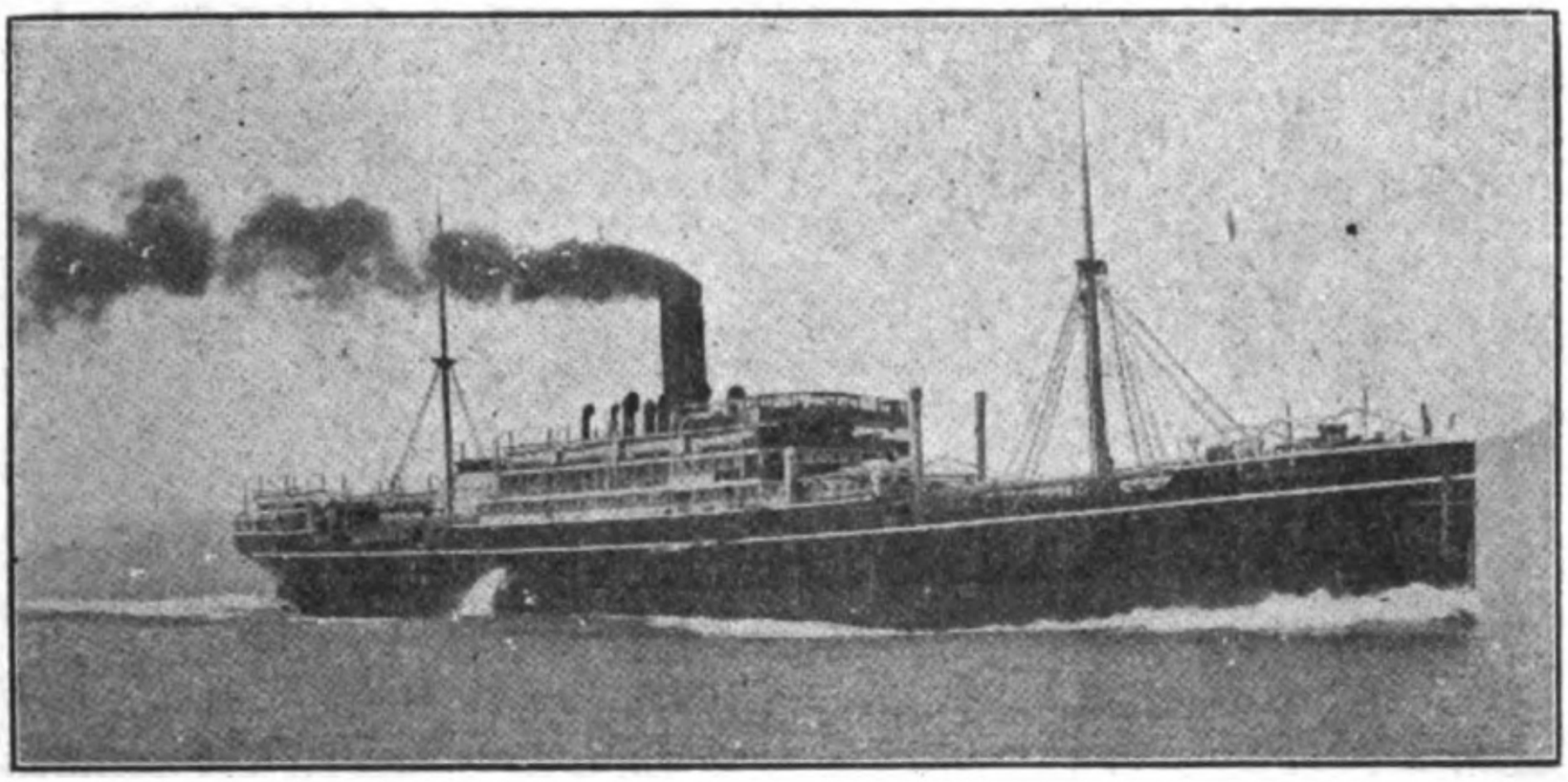

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